

9

Leisure, sport and tourism

The geography of tourism, sport and recreation.

Outline

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Defining Leisure

Tourism is now the world's largest industry. Indeed, if 'tourism' were a country whose wealth was being measured by its gross domestic product (GDP), then tourism would be the third richest country in the world.

In MEDCs, sport is becoming increasingly commercialised and profit-driven. When we consider tourism and sport together, perhaps under the broad label of 'leisure', we are looking at a significant and rapidly expanding global economic sector. However, like all economic activities, the wealth within the leisure industry is not evenly distributed.

In this chapter, we will look at many aspects of tourism and sport, including the distribution and diversity of leisure activities, their increasing popularity and their impact on environments, cultures and economies at a variety of scales.

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Education and Indoctrination

The terms used in leisure studies are not always clear. Before proceeding too deeply into this topic, it is recommended that you become familiar with the definitions at the top of the next page.

Leisure at the International Scale — Tourism

Changes in the Demand and Supply of Tourism

Tourism can be thought of as the short-term circular migration of people to places outside their normal place of work or residence for the purpose of leisure. People have always travelled, and indeed much of the early interest in Geography arose from the fascination people have with other places that are different (figure 9.1). The growth that has seen tourism emerge as the world's biggest

>> Some Useful Definitions

Carrying capacity — the maximum number of visitors/participants that a site/event can satisfy at one time. It is customary to distinguish between **environmental carrying capacity** (the maximum number before the local environment becomes damaged) and **perceptual carrying capacity** (the maximum number before a specific group of visitors considers the level of impact, such as noise, to be excessive). For example, young mountain bikers may be more crowd-tolerant than elderly walkers.

Leisure — any freely chosen activity or experience that takes place in non-work time.

Primary tourist / recreational resources — the pre-existing attractions for tourism or recreation (that is, those not built specifically for the purpose), including climate, scenery, wildlife, indigenous people, cultural and heritage sites. These are distinguished from **secondary tourist / recreational resources**, which include accommodation, catering, entertainment and shopping.

Recreation — a leisure-time activity undertaken voluntarily and for enjoyment. It includes individual pursuits, organised outings and events, and non-paid (non-professional) sports.

Resort — a settlement where the primary function is tourism. This includes a hotel complex.

Sport — a physical activity involving events and competitions at the national and international scale with professional participants.

Tourism — travel away from home for at least one night for the purpose of leisure. Note that this definition excludes day-trippers. There are many possible subdivisions of tourism. Subgroups include **ecotourism** — tourism focusing on the natural environment and local communities; **heritage tourism** — tourism based on an historic legacy (landscape feature, historic building or event) as its major attraction; **sustainable tourism** — tourism that conserves primary tourist resources and supports the livelihoods and culture of local people.



9.1 In the 1800s, tourism was enjoyed only by a privileged few. Maymyo (now Pyin Oo Lwin) in Myanmar was a 'hill station' where British soldiers and administrators took their holidays to escape the lowland tropical heat of what was then colonial Burma. Many buildings in Pyin Oo Lwin are relics of the privileges of the colonial era.

industry has only occurred in the last half-century or so. Between 1950 and 1990, annual world tourist arrivals increased from about 25 million to 455 million (table 9.1). In 2000, international annual tourism arrivals reached 682 million, and despite temporary slow-downs following the 9/11 terrorist attacks in the US and the outbreak of SARS in 2003, the figure had reached almost 900 million by 2007, almost 15% of the world's population. In addition to these figures, there are even larger numbers of domes-

tic tourists who travel within their own countries. Travel, once a luxury for the privileged few, now appeals to a mass market.

Despite factors such as international terrorism, economic stagnation in More Economically Developed Countries (MEDCs), and worsening of poverty in some Less Economically Developed Countries (LEDCs), international tourism is expected to grow strongly in the future. It is estimated by 2010, 1,018 million people will travel internationally.



9.2 The USA is one of the world's most popular tourist destinations, with over 40 million tourist arrivals each year. Although many visitors are attracted by spectacular scenery or family reunions, others are attracted by the country's many famous theme parks, such as Disneyland near Los Angeles which is shown here.

Table 9.1

International Tourist Arrivals, 1950 - 2009

| Year | Tourist Arrivals (millions) |
|------|-----------------------------|
| 1950 | 25 |
| 1960 | 69 |
| 1965 | 113 |
| 1970 | 166 |
| 1975 | 222 |
| 1980 | 288 |
| 1985 | 330 |
| 1990 | 455 |
| 1995 | 534 |
| 1996 | 570 |
| 1997 | 594 |
| 1998 | 611 |
| 1999 | 634 |
| 2000 | 682 |
| 2001 | 682 |
| 2002 | 702 |
| 2003 | 691 |
| 2004 | 761 |
| 2005 | 801 |
| 2006 | 846 |
| 2007 | 900 |
| 2008 | 919 |
| 2009 | 880 |

Source: World Tourism Organisation

Among the MEDCs, the top tourist destinations are France, Spain, the United States and Italy (figure 9.2). Other MEDCs with a significant share of the world tourism market are the United Kingdom, Canada, Poland, Austria, Germany and Russia. Some MEDCs are concerned about the loss of tourism income to LEDCs as their people travel overseas, and have actively promoted domestic tourism to their residents.

There are very few LEDCs that are not seeking to develop tourism because of the potential to earn foreign income that it brings. In general, LEDCs try to encourage wealthier tourists from MEDCs because of the extra money they spend. LEDCs with well-developed tourism industries include Brazil, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Mexico, Morocco, Thailand and Tunisia.

The rapid growth of tourism since 1950 has been caused by several factors. Important causes include the increased mobility and affluence of many people in MEDCs, stimulation of demand by advertising and greater media coverage of exotic tourist destinations, organisation of mass tourism by transnational companies, and improvements to facilities and infrastructure for tourists, especially in LEDCs. Another important factor has been the reduction in cost of travel due to technological developments in mass transport (figures 9.3 and 9.4).



9.3 The development of wide-bodied airliners reduced the costs per seat of air transport to the point where it became affordable by large numbers of people.



9.4 Large cruise ships have increased the appeal of mass travel, but they have not reduced costs to the same extent as large aircraft because they take longer to complete each journey and thus passenger turnover is slower. This cruise ship is visiting the Icelandic port of Akureyri.

Tourism can be classified according to the purpose of the travel and the way in which it is organised. **Group tours** tend to be cheaper than individual travel because a common set of arrangements is made for a number of people simultaneously (figure 9.5). Groups travel together, stay together and eat together. This works well if everyone in the group has common interests in the tour program. Some destinations, such as North Korea, require tourists to travel in a group at all times. A variation on group tours is the **packaged tour**. Packaged tours also tend to be cheaper than individual travel because travel agents make bulk purchases of airline seats and hotel rooms,



9.5 Lijiang (China) attracts visitors who are interested in exploring China's cultural heritage..



9.7 Beaches are an important tourist attraction in warmer climates, such as here at Tamarindo in Costa Rica.



9.6 Recreational travel can take many forms, but it usually involves a change of scenery and lifestyle from normal. At its best, it also educates the traveller, such as here where tourists are learning about Europe's largest valley glacier, the Skeidararsandur, in south-east Iceland.



9.8 The hill at Medjugorje (in Bosnia-Herzegovina) where the Virgin Mary is said to have appeared on many occasions to give a message of peace and love. Medjugorje is the focus of pilgrimage for many Catholic Christians.

gaining preferential rates because of the large volume of advance purchases made. Of course, tourists do not gain all the benefits of these savings because the travel agent takes a commission from the saving.

Individual travel is favoured by more experienced travellers, by those wanting a unique travel experience, and by the more adventurous. Individual travel can be very cheap when backpacking, and it can open the way to destinations that may not be able to handle the larger numbers of group and package travellers. Much individual tourism is for family reasons, such as visiting relatives and reunions. Other purposes for tourism include recreation, cultural enrichment, adventure, religious pilgrimages and sightseeing (figures 9.5 to 9.9).

Tourist destinations can be classified in many ways. In the United States, the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Committee (ORRRC) classifies recreation resources into six broad categories:

- 1. High density recreation areas.** These are areas where there is a variety of tourist attractions in a small area that use most of the local available resources. They are

9.9 Sightseeing may focus on anything that interests the tourist. In this view, a group of trekkers enters Tiger Leaping Gorge in China by horseback.



characterised by intensive development of resort hotels and facilities managed for maximum visitor usage, such as Disneyland, beaches on the Mediterranean coast of Spain or Greece, and Club Med resorts (figures 9.10 and 9.11).

2. **General outdoor recreational areas.** These are characterised by a wide variety of tourist attractions (though not as many as high density recreation areas), with substantial development. They tend to offer a wide choice of activities (figure 9.12). Resorts tend to be some distance from main population centres, and examples include ski resorts and sailing centres.
3. **Natural environment areas.** These are areas with multiple types of land use with a variety of activities available depending upon the nature of the area. National Parks are good examples of this type of recreation resource.
4. **Unique natural areas.** These are areas of outstanding natural beauty or scenic grandeur, where the main activity is sightseeing. Examples include the Grand Canyon in the United States, Victoria Falls on the border of Zambia and Zimbabwe, and Geysir in Iceland.
5. **Primitive areas.** These include undisturbed wilderness and areas with no roads where natural wild conditions can still be found. Tourist activities in these areas would include trekking in the Sahara Desert or exploring the Highlands of Irian Jaya or the jungles of the Amazon Basin.
6. **Historic and cultural sites.** These are places of significance at a local, regional, national or international scale. Examples may include places of pilgrimage, buildings, archaeological sites and places associated with important historical events. For example, the Pyramids in Egypt, the Taj Mahal in India and the Temple Mount in Jerusalem, among many others.

QUESTION BLOCK 9A

1. *Show the data in table 9.1 as a line graph, making sure that you show the time intervals between each statistic correctly.*
2. *Suggest reasons why each of the following MEDCs has a large share of the world's tourism market: France, Spain, the United States and Italy, the United Kingdom, Canada, Poland, Austria, Germany and Russia.*
3. *Suggest reasons why each of the following LEDCs has a large share of the world's tourism market: Brazil, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Mexico, Morocco, Thailand and Tunisia.*
4. *Explain why international tourism has grown so much since 1950.*



9.10 An example of a well developed tourist area — Punta del Este on the coast of Uruguay.



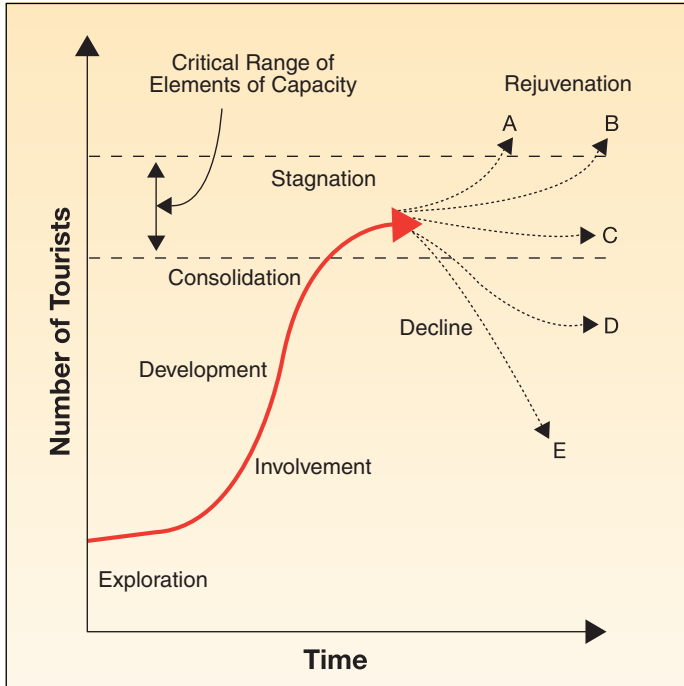
9.11 At Vouliagmeni (Greece), the high density of tourism is an attraction to some, although others might be repelled by such tourism.



9.12 Outdoor recreational facilities at a hotel in Bangkok in Thailand, overlooking the brown waters of the Chao Phraya River.

Stages of Tourism

Several geographers have attempted to describe the processes and the impacts of tourism by developing models. One of the best known is the **Butler Model**, which attempts to describe the cycle of evolution of a tourism area (figure 9.13).



9.13 Butler's model of the evolution of a tourist destination.

The model identifies seven stages of tourism development over time:

Exploration: A small number of tourists independently explore a new location for reasons such as personal adventure or to experience new cultures. At this stage, the economic, social and environmental impacts are virtually zero (figure 9.14).



9.14 Very basic tourist facilities characterise the 'exploration' stage of tourism, such as this accommodation facility at Turmi in southern Ethiopia.

Involvement: As acceptance of tourists by the locals increases, the destination becomes better known and more popular. Travel and accommodation facilities are improved, and some local people become more



9.15 A typical scene in an emerging area of tourism. Tiger Leaping Gorge in China's south-western province of Yunnan is a relatively remote and undeveloped tourist destination that appeals to limited numbers of adventurous trekkers. Accommodation in the Gorge is provided by local people of the Naxi ethnic group, typically in guest houses like this one, included as part of the family compound.

involved in the emerging tourist industry (figure 9.15).

Development: Investment by outsiders begins to flow in to the area, and local people become more involved, attracting more visitors. The area begins to emerge as a well-known tourist destination, pitched towards a defined market. In LEDCs, control often passes from local people to organisations based in MEDCs. This leads to more package holidays, increasing tourist numbers and less local involvement (figure 9.16).



9.16 In contrast to the scene shown in figure 9.15, this view shows the next stage of tourism when local people are employed by overseas companies in lower order jobs such as cleaning and waiting. This view shows part of a resort hotel in Tamarindo (Costa Rica) that is owned by a Spanish company.

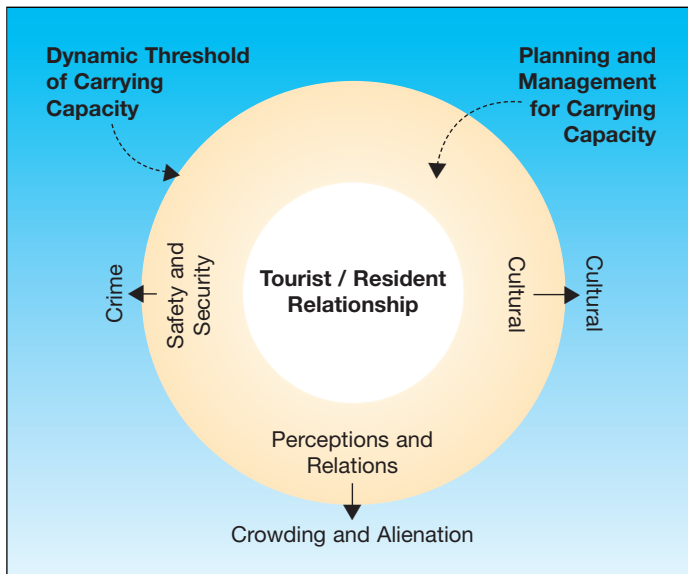
Consolidation: Tourism becomes established as an important economic and social activity. It begins to have a serious adverse impact traditional economies and lifestyles. Agricultural land is taken over for building resorts, usually without significant benefits for the local community in terms of increased wealth or employment. Resentment often occurs in the local population. Tourist numbers continue to rise, although rate of increase slows down.

Stagnation: Local opposition to tourism continues to grow, and there is a growing awareness of the environmental, social and economic problems brought by tourism. Negativity effectively stops further growth. There is a decrease in the number of tourist visits, suggesting that the original cultural and physical attractions have been lost.

Decline: The area decreases further in popularity, either severely or mildly (paths E and D in figure 9.13). Multinational tour operators move elsewhere and local involvement may increase to fill the vacuum. However, these local operators may be under-funded, leading to a further decline in the area’s attractiveness to tourists.

Rejuvenation: A secondary growth spurt may occur, induced by some new factor such as new investment, falling prices or advertising (paths A, B or C in figure 9.13). The loss of original natural attractions may be compensated for by new constructed facilities. A new and different type of tourist may be attracted, perhaps with different socio-economic backgrounds or demographic profile.

Another tourism model attempts to explain the changes described in the Butler Model. The **Hawkins Model** examines the factors that affect the demand for tourism in a particular area, and the forces that may limit the carrying capacity of an area to develop a tourist industry (figure 9.17).



9.17 Hawkins model of the carrying capacity of tourism in an area.

Whereas Butler’s Model describes the carrying capacity of tourism in an area when tourism is market-driven, the Hawkins Model attempts to take into account a broader set of factors. The Hawkins Model shows how the positive attitudes that may exist at first between tourists and local residents can change and become more negative as the threshold of the carrying capacity is reached.

At the centre of the model is the relationship between tourists and local residents. The outer edge of the coloured ring is the limit of tourist numbers that an area can support. The inner edge of the coloured ring is the minimum, or threshold, number of tourists in an area. The width of the coloured ring will oscillate in and out according to many variables, the most important of which are shown on the diagram – safety and security, perceptions and relations, and the nature of the contact between people of different cultures. In reality, there is a wide range of factors that can limit an area’s tourism carrying capacity:

Ecological factors:

- climate
- vegetation
- animal life
- landscape
- water.

Political factors:

- legislation
- administrative capability
- individual priorities, goals and aspirations.

Physical factors:

- accommodation
- water supply
- sewage systems
- transportation and access
- visual attractiveness.

Economic factors:

- personal income
- living costs
- labour costs
- resort technology
- resort investment.

Local residents’ experiences:

- invasion of privacy
- involvement in tourism
- benefits from tourism
- tourists’ sensitivity and behaviour.

Visitor experiences:

- volume of people
- visitor behaviour
- levels of service
- local hospitality
- visitors’ expectations.

QUESTION BLOCK 9B

1. Do you think the names of each stage in Butler’s Model are adequate labels? Can you suggest better names?
2. Describe what happens during the third phase of Butler’s Model (Development).
3. Using examples that you know about, explain why some resorts have declined in popularity.
4. With reference to a tourist resort that you know about, describe its attractions and its problems.

Leisure at the International Scale — Sport

International Participation and Success in an international sports event — The Olympic Games

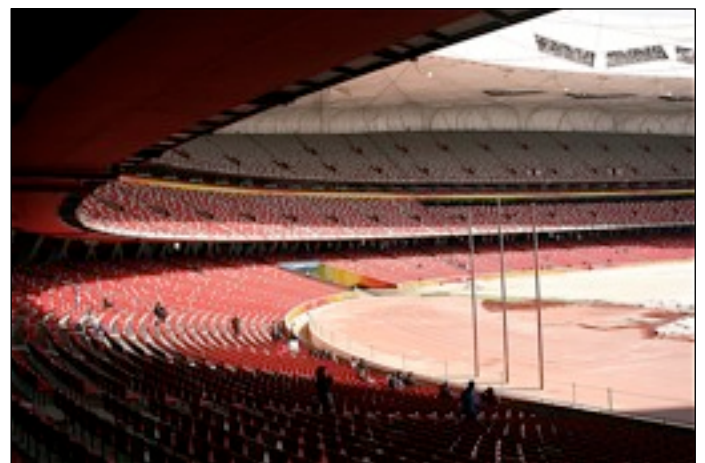
The Olympic Games, which are held every four years in cities around the world, are an international multi-sport event established in 1896. The organisation that controls the Olympic Movement is the International Olympic Committee (IOC), based in Lausanne, Switzerland. The IOC oversees the planning of the Olympic Games, including the selection of the host city and the program of events for each Games. The Games are divided into summer and winter events. For cities that are selected to host the Games, there are often significant costs in building sports facilities, although these remain available for use many years after the event (figure 9.18).

Since 1896, the cities which have been selected to host the Summer Olympic Games have been:

- 1896 - Athens, Greece
- 1900 - Paris, France
- 1904 - St Louis, USA
- 1908 - London, UK
- 1912 - Stockholm, Sweden
- 1916 - Berlin, Germany (cancelled due to war)
- 1920 - Antwerp, Belgium
- 1924 - Paris, France
- 1928 - Amsterdam, Netherlands
- 1932 - Los Angeles, USA
- 1936 - Berlin, Germany
- 1940 - Tokyo, Japan (cancelled due to war)
- 1944 - London, UK (cancelled due to war)
- 1948 - London, UK
- 1952 - Helsinki, Finland
- 1956 - Melbourne, Australia
- 1960 - Rome, Italy
- 1964 - Tokyo, Japan
- 1968 - Mexico City, Mexico
- 1972 - Munich, Germany
- 1976 - Montreal, Canada
- 1980 - Moscow, USSR
- 1984 - Los Angeles, USA
- 1988 - Seoul, South Korea
- 1992 - Barcelona, Spain
- 1996 - Atlanta, USA
- 2000 - Sydney, Australia
- 2004 - Athens, Greece
- 2008 - Beijing, China
- 2012 - London, UK (scheduled)
- 2016 - Rio de Janeiro (scheduled)

The Winter Olympic Games began in 1924, and until 1992 were held in the same year as the Summer Olympics. From 1994, the Winter Olympics were held two years before the subsequent Summer Olympics. The cities that have hosted the Winter Olympic Games have been:

- 1924 - Chamonix, France
- 1928 - St Moritz, Switzerland
- 1932 - Lake Placid, USA
- 1936 - Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany
- 1940 - Sapporo, Japan (cancelled due to war)
- 1944 - Cortina d'Ampezzo, Italy (cancelled)
- 1948 - St Moritz, Switzerland
- 1952 - Oslo, Norway
- 1956 - Cortina d'Ampezzo, Italy
- 1960 - Squaw Valley, USA
- 1964 - Innsbruck, Austria
- 1968 - Grenoble, France
- 1972 - Sapporo, Japan
- 1976 - Innsbruck, Austria
- 1980 - Lake Placid, USA
- 1984 - Sarajevo, Yugoslavia
- 1988 - Calgary, Canada
- 1992 - Albertville, France
- 1994 - Lillehammer, Norway
- 1998 - Nagano, Japan
- 2002 - Salt Lake City, USA
- 2006 - Turin, Italy
- 2010 - Vancouver, Canada (scheduled)
- 2014 - Sochi, Russia (scheduled)



9.18 The Olympic Stadium in Beijing, China.

QUESTION BLOCK 9C

1. For the Summer and the Winter Olympics (separately) classify each host city by its continent, and then tally the number of times the Olympics have been held in (a) Europe, (b) Asia, (c) Australia, (d) North America and (e) South America.
2. From your answer to the previous question, comment on the relationship between economic wealth and hosting the Olympic Games.

The Olympic Games raise many interesting geographical questions, such as ‘which countries and parts of the world are the most successful in winning medals at the Olympic Games?’, ‘do the MEDCs win more medals than LEDCs?’, and ‘do countries with larger populations win more medals?’.

Medal tallies at the Olympics

Although the IOC discourages the ranking of countries by medal tallies, newspapers and television stations around the world calculate and release daily counts of the numbers of medals won by each country, especially when the home country has been successful (figure 9.19).



9.19 A medals presentation ceremony at the Beijing Olympic Games. (Photo: Laptin Ho)

The competition between countries as a matter of national pride began in the 1950s as superpower rivalries between the capitalist USA and the communist USSR intensified. During this period, sporting prowess was seen as a way to promote political ideology, and vast resources were pumped into developing sports facilities and training

athletes. The rivalry between countries continues today, though more as a result of media hype than political ideology.

Comparing the medal tallies of countries can be misleading unless certain factors are taken into consideration. Table 9.2 shows the medal tallies of the top ten countries in the Summer Olympic Games since 1980. In raw figures, the most successful country in the 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing was China, which won 51 gold medals, followed by the United States with 36 and Russia with 23. It seems clear from these raw statistics that countries with **large populations** have a better chance of doing well as there is a greater chance that all things being equal, a larger population will produce a larger number of elite athletes.

There are, however, exceptions to this general trend. In the Beijing Olympics, Australia was ranked 6th, winning 14 gold medals from a population of 21.3 million people, whereas India with 1,149.3 million people ranked 50th, behind countries such as Azerbaijan and the Dominican Republic, winning just one gold and two bronze medals. This suggests that wealth and the **level of economic development** may also play a role in sporting success.

Related to wealth is the **availability of resources** to support athletes in a country. Until a few decades ago, all athletes competing in the Olympic Games had to be amateurs. Nowadays, professional sportsmen and sportswomen may compete in the Olympics, and this has led to a growth in the demand for high quality training and competition venues. Depending on the country, expensive sporting facilities usually have to be provided by governments or the corporate sector through sponsorships, donations or grants.

Table 9.2

Top 10 medal winning nations, Summer Olympic Games, 1980 to 2008

| | Moscow 1980 | Los Angeles 1984 | Seoul 1988 | Barcelona 1992 | Atlanta 1996 | Sydney 2000 | Athens 2004 | Beijing 2008 |
|------|---------------|------------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| 1st | USSR | United States | USSR | Russia | United States | United States | United States | China |
| 2nd | East Germany | Romania | East Germany | United States | Germany | Russia | China | United States |
| 3rd | Bulgaria | West Germany | United States | Germany | Russia | China | Russia | Russia |
| 4th | Cuba | China | West Germany | China | China | Australia | Australia | Great Britain |
| 5th | Italy | Italy | South Korea | Cuba | Australia | Germany | Japan | Germany |
| 6th | Hungary | Canada | Bulgaria | Hungary | France | France | Germany | Australia |
| 7th | Romania | Japan | Hungary | South Korea | Italy | Italy | France | South Korea |
| 8th | France | New Zealand | Romania | Spain | South Korea | Netherlands | Italy | Japan |
| 9th | Great Britain | Yugoslavia | China | France | Cuba | Cuba | South Korea | Italy |
| 10th | Poland | South Korea | Great Britain | Australia | Ukraine | Great Britain | Great Britain | France |

Table 9.3

Top 10 medal winning nations by Population and GDP per capita, Beijing Summer Olympic Games, 2008

| | Country | Gold Medals | Population (millions) | Population per Gold Medal | Country | Gold Medals | GDP (\$US mill.) | GDP per capita per Gold Medal |
|------|-------------|-------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|-------------|-------------|------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1st | Jamaica | 6 | 2.714 | 452,333 | North Korea | 2 | 2,220 | 47 |
| 2nd | Bahrain | 1 | 0.760 | 760,168 | China | 51 | 3,299,000 | 49 |
| 3rd | Mongolia | 2 | 2.629 | 1,314,500 | Ethiopia | 4 | 16,900 | 53 |
| 4th | Estonia | 1 | 1.340 | 1,340,600 | Kenya | 5 | 29,500 | 157 |
| 5th | New Zealand | 3 | 4.274 | 1,424,800 | Zimbabwe | 1 | 3,418 | 263 |
| 6th | Georgia | 3 | 4.395 | 1,465,000 | Russia | 23 | 1,286,000 | 394 |
| 7th | Australia | 14 | 21.394 | 1,528,165 | Ukraine | 7 | 140,500 | 436 |
| 8th | Norway | 3 | 4.778 | 1,592,667 | Jamaica | 6 | 8,905 | 547 |
| 9th | Slovakia | 3 | 5.402 | 1,800,758 | Georgia | 3 | 9,553 | 725 |
| 10th | Slovenia | 1 | 2.029 | 2,029,000 | Mongolia | 2 | 3,854 | 733 |

In some countries, sport is seen as an important factor in **national identity**. For example, Australian are often seen by outsiders as being obsessed with sports, and they like to present themselves to the rest of the world in this way. This can lead to a culture that values sport and competition, which in turn is likely to lead to more resources being diverted into sports and training.

Different sports tend to dominate in different countries, often for **cultural** or historical reasons. Thus, basketball and baseball are associated with the United States, table tennis with China, swimming with Australia, marathon running with Kenya and Ethiopia, and gymnastics with countries in Eastern Europe. Countries in East Asia tend to dominate in certain sports such as judo, table tennis and badminton for historical and cultural reasons.

Climate is also a factor in influencing success in sporting competitions such as the Olympics. Countries with cold climates tend to dominate the sports in the Winter Olympics, such as skiing, whereas these countries are seldom very successful in the Summer Olympics. The success of countries such as Australia and the United States in swimming can be partly explained by the warm climates of these countries.

Table 9.3 shows the relationship between gold medals won at the 2008 Olympic Games and two other factors, population size and wealth (as measured by GDP per capita). On a per capita basis, Jamaica was the most successful country, winning six gold medals from a population of 2.7 million people. When wealth is considered, North Korea was the most successful country, winning just two gold medals, but achieving this with a ratio of just \$US47 per person per gold medal of GDP (figure 9.20).



9.20 Pak Hyon Suk from North Korea won the gold medal for women's weightlifting at the Beijing Olympic Games in 2008.

Because many sports require expensive facilities such as stadiums, velodromes and swimming pools, LEDCs that excel in sports tend to achieve in sports that do not require such facilities, such as long-distance running (which is dominated by Ethiopia and Kenya) or weight lifting (where the North Koreans do very well). On the other hand, sports that demand expensive resources such as cycling, rowing, canoeing and yachting tend to be dominated by richer countries in Western Europe.

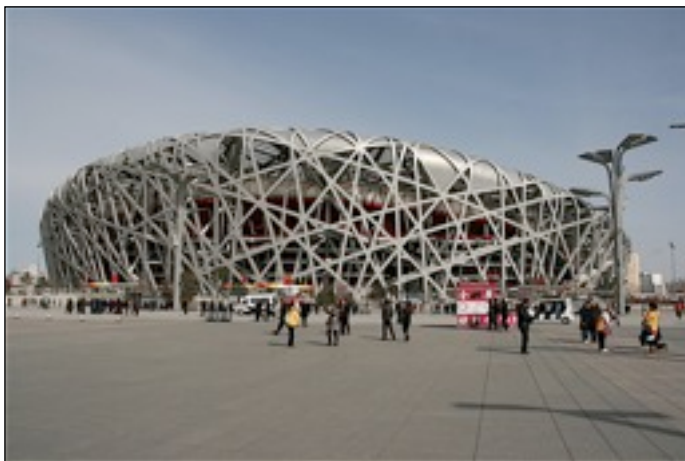
However, there are exceptions to this general pattern. For example, at the Beijing Olympics in 2008, Luxembourg, which has one of the world's highest GDP per capita figures, failed to win a single medal of any type.

QUESTION BLOCK 9D

1. Outline the factors that influence participation and success in international sporting events such as the Olympic Games.
2. Using the information in tables 9.2 and 9.3, which three nations do you think should be considered the most successful at the Olympic Games held in Beijing in 2008? Give reasons to explain your answer.

Geographic costs and benefits of hosting the Olympic Games

From a financial viewpoint, holding the Olympic Games can be a mixed blessing for the host cities. The costs can be huge, but so can the benefits. For example, the cost of hosting the 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing was US\$42 billion, spent over a period of about seven years. This figure included US\$3 billion to upgrade Beijing Airport, and US\$500 million to build the 'Bird's Nest' Stadium (figure 9.21). This figure of US\$42 billion was a comparatively small price, however, considering the Games were estimated to have added US\$4 trillion to China's Gross Domestic Product in 2008 alone.



9.21 The 'Bird's Nest' Stadium, built for the 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing.

In recent decades, larger numbers of cities have become more enthusiastic about bidding for the Games in the expectation of boosting income from tourism and raising the city's (and the nation's) profile internationally. On the other hand, some cities have reported huge losses as the income earned has fallen short of the expenditure required to host the event.

Before the Barcelona Olympics in 1992, the number of cities bidding to host the Olympic Games generally was quite small. From 1960 to 1984, the small number of bidding cities was due to a widespread feeling that the Olympics were becoming too large and too expensive, as well as presenting significant problems of political interference and terrorism. Terrorism at Olympic Games was

highlighted by the attack on Israeli athletes at the 1972 Games in Munich, while superpower rivalries affected performance and participation at the Olympics in 1956 (Melbourne), Moscow (1980) and Los Angeles (1984).

However, the huge commercial success of the Los Angeles Olympic Games in 1984 made hosting the Games seem more attractive, as did the significant urban renewal that occurred in Barcelona as a result of the 1992 Games. As a result, the process of bidding for Olympic Games has taken on a much larger scale involving publicity teams, advertising and lobbying (figures 9.22 and 9.23).



9.22 A large street sign in Beijing supporting the city's bid for the 2000 Olympic Games.



9.23 Another example of the public campaign in support of Beijing's 2000 Olympics bid.

As we saw earlier in this section, the cities that have hosted the Olympic Games have been heavily concentrated in Europe, and to a lesser degree, in North America and Asia. The Olympics have never been held in either Africa or South America, nor in West/Central/South/South-east Asia. The distribution of Olympic host cities is a mirror of levels of economic development as well as the traditional origin of athletics within Europe.

The pattern of cities selected to host the Olympic Games generally reflects the pattern of offers received by the IOC. In recent decades, the largest numbers of bids have come from cities in Europe and North America (table 9.4).

Although bids have been received from a few cities in Africa and South America, they have never offered the large-scale input of resources and facilities promised by cities in MEDCs.

Table 9.4

Bidding Cities for the Summer Olympic Games
1992 - 2016

| | Successful Bidding City | Runner-up Bidding Cities (in descending order of success; runner-up in bold) | Other Bidding Cities (in alphabetical order) |
|---------------|-------------------------|--|---|
| 2016 Olympics | Rio de Janeiro | Madrid Tokyo Chicago | Baku Doha Prague |
| 2012 Olympics | London | Paris Madrid New York Moscow | Havana Istanbul Leipzig Rio de Janeiro |
| 2008 Olympics | Beijing | Toronto Paris Istanbul Osaka | Bangkok Cairo Havana Kuala Lumpur Seville |
| 2004 Olympics | Athens | Rome Cape Town Stockholm Buenos Aires | Istanbul Lille Rio de Janeiro San Juan Seville St Petersburg |
| 2000 Olympics | Sydney | Beijing Manchester Berlin Istanbul | Brasilia Milan Tashkent |
| 1996 Olympics | Atlanta | Athens Toronto Melbourne Manchester Belgrade | |
| 1992 Olympics | Barcelona | Paris Brisbane Belgrade Birmingham Amsterdam | |

When cities wish to bid to host the Olympic Games, they submit their initial applications to the IOC nine years before the games are scheduled. Thus, cities wishing to bid for the 2016 Summer Olympics had to submit their initial applications by September 2007. From these initial bids, a short-list of four candidate cities was devised by June 2008, the finalist cities being Chicago, Madrid, Rio de Janeiro, and Tokyo. Three other cities, Prague, Doha and Baku, were eliminated. In October 2009, it was announced that Rio de Janeiro was the successful bidder.

This process was similar to that followed for many years to select the host city. The factors that influence the final decision of the host city are complex and not always transparent. For example, because the IOC makes a large profit from selling the television and media rights of the Games, it is understood that one important criterion for selecting a city is that the timing of events can be synchronised with peak viewing times in North America, where the highest media fees are paid. When the Games are scheduled outside North America, then individual events that are likely to feature North American finalists are often scheduled at unusual times of the day. It is thought that a considerable amount of lobbying precedes the final announcement of a host city.

The impact of the Summer Olympic Games on host cities needs to be seen in an historical context. There have been four phases of infrastructure impact on cities hosting the Olympic Games:

Phase 1, 1896 to 1904: The Games were small in scale, poorly organised and did not necessarily require the building of any new facilities.

Phase 2, 1908 to 1932: The Games were still small in scale, but were better organised and involved the construction of purpose-built sports facilities.

Phase 3, 1936 to 1956: The Games became large in scale, well organised, and involved the construction of purpose-built sports facilities that made an impact on the surrounding urban infrastructure.

Phase 4, 1960 to the present: The Games are very large in scale, well organised and involve the construction of purpose-built sports facilities with significant impact on the urban infrastructure of the host city (figure 9.24).



9.24 The National Aquatic Centre, also known as the Water Cube, is an example of urban infrastructure from the 2008 Olympics in Beijing.

During Phase 1, the Olympic Games were held in conjunction to World Exhibitions or Expos, and therefore they were really supplements (or side-shows) to the main event that lacked much genuine international interest or urban impact. Today (Phase 4), hosting the Olympic

Games usually brings significant new urban development and upgrading of urban infrastructure which receive a high priority in government funding.

The **infrastructure** built for the Olympics provide an ongoing resource for the host city, which generally leads to an improvement in the quality of life for the residents. The Olympic Games held in Sydney (2000) and Beijing (2008) were regarded as having the widespread approval and support of the local population, but this has not always been so in other cities. Some have argued that the money spent on sports facilities and urban infrastructure diverts finance away from the less visible needs of the local population, and such arguments were often heard in Atlanta, Barcelona and Athens. In some cities, organised anti-Olympic groups have been organised to oppose the bids by their home cities.

One response by Olympic host cities to criticism has been to raise the significance of **environmental sustainability** in the planning for the Games. This trend began with the Sydney Olympics in 2000, when ambitious promises were made that the city would host 'the Green Games', with a special emphasis on energy and water conservation, waste minimisation, recycling of water, use of public transport, the improvement of air, water and soil quality and the protection of significant cultural and physical environments. Part of the motive to highlight environmental sustainability arose because the site of the Sydney Olympics was an area of reclaimed swampland called Homebush Bay where toxic industrial wastes had been dumped in earlier decades (figure 9.25).



9.25 An oblique aerial view of the site of the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney, which was a reclaimed swamp where toxic industrial wastes had been dumped in earlier decades.

Although the **economic benefits** of hosting the Olympic Games are often debated and are perhaps difficult to quantify precisely, some commonly accepted factors include:

- **tourism** is boosted, both by people coming to attend the Games, and because of the wider international media

publicity that the Olympics brings to the host city and the nation;

- the inflow of visitors raises **incomes**, and the impact of these higher incomes infuses many facets of the economy through the multiplier effect (which means the same money is spent several times as it passes through the economy);
- the construction of new sporting facilities and other **infrastructure** creates employment, and some types of development such as roads, buses, housing, airports and new hotels provide a basis for ongoing efficiency in the economy (figure 9.26); and
- the **demand for labour** increases in response to the extra services needed to support the Olympic Games, although if poorly managed, the employment created by the Games can evaporate as soon as the events have finished.



9.26 The Athlete's Village, under construction for the London Olympic Games of 2012.



9.27 Banners such as this were erected in many cities throughout China (including Hong Kong, shown here) to express support for the Beijing Olympics during the torch relay.

Other benefits of hosting the Olympics are even more difficult to measure, and these generally fit into the category of **social benefits**.

These include:

- **national pride** across the entire country invariably increases with the greater international focus on the host city, which usually tries to present itself in as positive a way as possible (figure 9.27);
- a related factor is the sense of goodwill generated by hosting the Olympics, which can serve a nation's **foreign policy goals** and make diplomacy easier and more effective;
- hosting the Olympics usually increases **awareness of sports** throughout the host country, leaving an ongoing legacy of improved fitness and involvement in sporting activities;
- since 2000, Olympic Games have relied heavily on voluntary labour, which has helped create a stronger **sense of community** among the population;
- much of the extra employment generated by hosting the Games is in the building and construction industries, and these jobs are typically taken by unskilled or semi-skilled unemployed workers, and this leads to the **empowerment of low income residents** of the host country; and
- hosting the games usually leads to large-scale **urban renewal** as Games venues tend to be built on disused or run down areas of land.

QUESTION BLOCK 9E

1. *What motivates a city to bid for the Olympic Games?*
2. *With reference to table 9.4, which types of cities tend to be most successful when bidding for the Olympic Games?*
3. *Outline the economic, social and environmental costs and benefits of hosting the Olympic Games.*

Leisure at the National / Regional Scale — Tourism

Case Study of a National Tourist Industry – North Korea

North Korea, or as it is officially known, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, is one of the world's last examples of a centrally planned government tourism industry. Before the fall of communism in the USSR and Eastern Europe in the period 1989 to 1991, all tourism was controlled by single national government authorities such as Intourist (USSR), Cedok (Czechoslovakia) and Orbis (Poland). In a similar way, KITC (Korea International Travel Company) controls every aspect of tourism in North Korea today.

QUESTION BLOCK 9F

1. *Tourism in North Korea almost certainly provides a strong contrast with tourism in the country where you live. As you read this section, make a point form list of differences between the two..*

North Korea is perhaps the last hard-line communist country left in the world, and it has one of the world's smallest tourism industries. Although the government authorities do not release statistics, it is understood that fewer than 2,000 foreign tourists are allowed to enter North Korea each year.

This is much less than during the 1970s and 1980s when former communist countries (the USSR, East Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary, Yugoslavia and Mongolia) sent about 10,000 tourists annually to North Korea. Of this number, about 70% came from the Soviet Union. During this period, the national airline (Air Koryo) had direct flights to such diverse destinations as Moscow (USSR), East Berlin (East Germany), Sofia (Bulgaria), Prague (Czechoslovakia) and Conakry (Guinea).



9.28 North Korea's national airline, Air Koryo, still uses many Soviet-era aircraft such as this Ilyushin Il-62, seen at Pyongyang Airport.

Today, Air Koryo operates just three regular international flights, these being twice-weekly to Beijing, once a week to Shenyang (China) and once a week to Vladivostok (Russia). Because the numbers of tourists today are so small, the infrastructure to support tourism is quite underdeveloped (figures 9.28 and 9.29).

Chinese visitors were first permitted to enter North Korea in 1989, and initially they were restricted to a zone that extended only 40 kilometres in from the Chinese border. Although this was relaxed in 1991 and Chinese were also permitted to visit Pyongyang (the capital), Kaesong (near the border with South Korea) and Mount Myohyang, the restriction was re-imposed in 2000.

The issuing of visas for all nationalities is strictly controlled, and this is achieved by requiring formal letters of invitation from an official organisation within North

Korea as well as routinely delaying the issue of necessary travel documentation until less than a week prior to the planned date of entry. Similarly, air tickets on the country's national carrier, Air Koryo, are usually issued only the day before departure. The authorities reserve the right not to issue either the visa or the air ticket right up to these dates.



9.29 The waiting area at Pyongyang Airport, shortly before the departure of the one flight for the day.

Other restrictions are enforced during a visitor's stay in North Korea. Mobile phones may not be taken into the country (they are left at the airport upon arrival and collected upon departure), binoculars are banned, and males are required to conform to the hair regulations, which limit hair length for men to between two and five centimetres, or up to seven centimetres for men over 50 to hide emerging baldness. This requirement apparently derives from a North Korean academic study that showed long hair reduces intelligence (for men only?) by sapping oxygen from the brain.

Furthermore, foreigners are forbidden from holding any local currency (the 'won'). All purchases by foreigners must be made using foreign currency, which in the order preferred is the Euro, the Chinese Renminbi, and the US dollar.

As is the case in all countries, visitors are required to conform to local laws and regulations. In North Korea, this includes not criticising the leadership. In the early 2000s, a German tourist was detained for several months for asking her interpreter why Kim Jong Il was the only fat man in North Korea.

On the other hand, because the general law and order in North Korea is so effective, with almost zero crime rates, plus the fact that foreigners are under the care of their guides during almost every waking moment, North Korea is one of the safest destinations in the world for travellers. No foreigner has ever reported being attacked, robbed, threatened or mugged in North Korea.

The reasons that tourists travel to North Korea are quite different to the motives of tourists who visit most other destinations. North Korea does not appeal to tourists who are seeking beach resorts, theme parks, self-drive exploring or time to relax. All tourists in North Korea are required to travel as part of an all-inclusive group tour which is accompanied at all times by two guides (who act as interpreters) and a driver. Tourists may not leave their hotel compounds without permission, and then only if accompanied by a guide and usually without their camera.

Tourists are not normally permitted to speak with local people other than their guides, and they may only take photographs with the permission of their guides. Tourists are forbidden from photographing military or strategic objects, soldiers, poverty, or anything that might portray the country in a negative way. If any citizen sees a foreigner taking a photograph, they are obliged to report the incident to the police, although this seldom happens in practice.

These very tight regulations on photography may be explained in part by the country's turbulent history. From 1950 to 1953, the Korean peninsula was devastated by a brutal war that resulted in almost three million deaths. The fighting ended with an armistice signed on 27th July 1953, but a peace treaty has never been signed. Technically, North Korea is still at war with South Korea, which accommodates large numbers of US combat soldiers in its territory.



9.30 This 20 metre high bronze statue of Kim Il Sung has pride of place on a hill overlooking the city of Pyongyang. Local people and visitors show their respect by bowing before the statue.

Paradoxically, it is the distinctive characteristics of the country that emerged from that turbulent history that are the main attractions to tourists who visit North Korea. Tourists are taken to innumerable socialist monuments and memorials to the brilliance of the country's founder, the Great Leader Kim Il Sung, and his son, the Dear Leader Kim Jong Il (figures 9.30 and 9.31). Although he died in 1994, Kim Il Sung still serves as President (he is currently the world's longest serving Head of State),

although this is now a ceremonial rather than decision-making role.

Most major tourist sights have a strong political and ideological flavour. For example, the museum in the country's capital city, Pyongyang, that is devoted to the Korean War (known as the Victorious Fatherland Liberation War Museum) features captured American tanks, guns and aircraft that were shot down (figure 9.32). The Museum also displays documents captured from the US Embassy in Seoul when the North Koreans took over the city that purportedly prove that the US and South Korean forces planned and initiated the Korean War (unlike the story that is generally accepted outside North Korea). Throughout the museum, and indeed throughout North Korea, the US is generally referred to as "US imperialist aggressors", while South Korea is generally referred to as the "South Korean puppet regime".



9.33 The border between North and South Korea at Panmunjom, seen from the northern side. Some tourists are walking back from one of the blue negotiating huts that straddle the border. A group of tourists in South Korea watches from the other side.

The border between the two Koreas is the thin concrete strip that passes through the middle of each blue building, with light coloured clay on the northern side and darker grey gravel on the southern side.

Other tourist sights may at first seem a little less political in character. For example, most tourists who visit Pyongyang are shown the Grand People's Study House, which overlooks Kim Il Sung Square in the city centre. The Grand People's Study House is a combination of a large central library and an adult education centre. Even here, however, there is a political dimension as visitors are invited to try a special type of desk with a swivelling desktop that was inspired when Kim Jong Il visited the library and gave some 'on-the-spot guidance' on how to make using the desks 'more convenient for the masses' (figure 9.34).



9.31 A bronze statue of Kim Il Sung on a horse. In the background are large portraits of Kim Jong Il and his mother, Kim Jong Suk.



9.32 A display of captured American equipment in the Victorious Fatherland Liberation War Museum, Pyongyang.

Although it is somewhat difficult to access from the southern side, visitors to North Korea are often taken inside the negotiating huts that straddle the border with South Korea at Panmunjom. Figure 9.33 is a view looking from North Korea looking into South Korea, with some tourists on the northern side leaving the negotiating huts.



9.34 Anyone using the Grand People's Study House in Pyongyang is welcome to visit the office of this 'philosophy expert' to have their question on any topic answered.

Tourists are sometimes shown one of two restored Buddhist monasteries in North Korea, although neither is functioning as a place of worship for North Koreans (figure 9.35). While visiting these monasteries, visitors are told how the original buildings had been destroyed

during bombing by 'US imperialist aggressive forces', but that the buildings had been rebuilt 'out of deep concern for the people under the loving care and wise leadership of the Great Leader, Comrade Kim Il Sung'.



9.35 The monk at this restored Buddhist temple on Mount Myohyang was trained in Buddhism at Pyongyang's Kim Il Sung University.

In general, holders of US passports are not issued with visas to visit North Korea. However, exceptions are sometimes made (for short periods and at a high price) when performances of mass gymnastics are held in Pyongyang. Mass gymnastics (also called 'mass games') are synchronised gymnastics, dance, acrobatics and drama, often accompanied by music and a strong political message, featuring about 100,000 people in each 90 minute performance (figure 9.36). The mass gymnastics are held in one of several large stadiums in Pyongyang, and they include rapidly changing backdrops involving tens of thousands of school children, each of whom holds up a large book, changing the pages on cue to form a 'pixel' of the world's picture (figure 9.37).



9.36 A scene from a mass gymnastics display in May Day Stadium, Pyongyang.

Unlike sports competitions, where athletes compete for prizes or awards, the mass gymnastics are designed to represent a pure model of communism where each individual sacrifices his or her individuality for the greater common good of the excellence of the collective perform-

ance (figure 9.38). All the performers are volunteers, and in the case of the tens of thousands of school children who participate, practice takes several hours every day after school for about six months prior to the performance, often outside in sub-zero temperatures.

Not all tourism in North Korea is undertaken by foreigners. There is a domestic tourist industry, and although no statistics are available, it is also extremely small in scale. North Koreans require special permission to travel beyond the limits of their home town, and frequent road blocks check the papers and documents of all travellers. Access to some parts of the country are completely forbidden to domestic and foreign travellers alike.



9.37 A close view of a section of the backdrop at a mass gymnastics display. The heads of the children holding the display books can just be seen, giving an idea of the large scale of the picture formed.



9.38 Mass gymnastics, Pyongyang.

Domestic travel is usually organised by a person's work unit, and members of the same work unit usually travel together. Usual travel destinations for North Koreans are revolutionary sites such as Mount Paektu in the country's north or the birthplace of Kim Il Sung in Pyongyang (figures 9.39 and 9.40).

One of the most special destinations for local people, and for a few specially invited foreign visitors, is the Kumsusan Memorial Palace where the body of the President, Kim Il Sung, is preserved and displayed. This huge build-

ing was the residence of Kim Il Sung during his later life, and after his death in 1994, it was converted into a mausoleum (figure 9.41).



9.39 Employees of a work unit, and their families, visit the house where Kim Il Sung was born on the outskirts of Pyongyang.



9.40 The plaque marks the spot where, as a boy, Kim Il Sung fought a Japanese bully, and won. It is now a significant tourist destination for North Koreans.



9.41 Immaculately dressed North Koreans leave Kumsusan, the mausoleum of Kim Il Sung, having paid their respects before his preserved body that is on display in a glass case.

Admission to the mausoleum is carefully controlled and must be pre-arranged. Everyone must be dressed formally for the visit as they are meeting a Head of State, and visitors pass through security checks, have the soles

of their shoes disinfected, and pass through strong air blowers to remove any insects. Visitors file past the carefully preserved body of the President and pay their respects, and then visit several rooms where his personal belongings (including his private railway carriage and Mercedes-Benz) are displayed, and then other rooms to see his awards and medals, some of which were presented several years after his death. He was, for example, awarded an honorary doctorate in information technology by a university in Belarus in 2002.

Some North Korean tourist destinations focus on the beauty of the natural environment. For example, for several years, groups of South Korean tourists were permitted to visit Mount Kumgang, a resort developed by Hyundai (a South Korean company) in a scenic area in the far south of North Korea, remote from any areas of North Korean settlement. Although access was expensive and visitors saw no North Korean settlements, the trips were very popular as South Koreans could say they had been into ‘the North’. However, these trips were suspended in 2008 after a North Korean soldier shot and killed a South Korean tourist who had wandered off the approved pathway.

Another popular area of natural beauty is Mount Myohyang, about 160 kilometres north of Pyongyang. This area features many trails for walking through a picturesque landscape of steep mountains, valleys and waterfalls (figure 9.42). Even here, however, the bare rock cliff faces are engraved with inspiring slogans and quotes from Kim Il Sung. The area also houses the International Friendship Exhibition, which is an underground building with 120 rooms displaying almost 250,000 gifts presented by world dignitaries and governments to Kim Il Sung to show their esteem and admiration for his innate genius and his work. The exhibits include bulletproof cars given by Josef Stalin, many portraits of the Great Leader in various national styles, and even a stuffed crocodile holding a tray of wine glasses that was given by the revolutionary Sandinista National Liberation Front in Nicaragua.



9.42 This boulder at a rest stop on a scenic walk up the slopes of Mount Myohyang has been beautified with quotes from Kim Il Sung..

When North Koreans have free time, they usually do not travel, which is why domestic tourism is poorly developed in North Korea. In general, North Koreans relax by doing activities that are often considered old-fashioned or quaint in most parts of the world today. For example, many families spend weekends and holidays as a family in a park, perhaps joining in communal singing of patriotic songs or dancing with other families (figure 9.43). Alternatively, some of the larger cities have amusement parks with rides and games for very low prices. Figure 9.44 shows one example of a Pyongyang amusement park where children can try their skill at throwing fake hand grenades at US soldiers.

which began in 1987, was stopped in 1992. The hotel, which is already the world's 24th highest building, is 105 stories (330 metres) high, with seven revolving restaurants at its top and 3,000 rooms (figure 9.46). Construction resumed in 2008 under the control of an Egyptian building company, with a planned opening in 2012 to coincide with the 100th birthday of the President, Kim Il Sung.



9.43 Communal singing and dancing, a popular weekend activity in Pyongyang's parks.



9.44 At the Pyongyang Fun Fair, children can try their skill at throwing fake hand grenades at US soldiers.

All hotels in North Korea are state-owned and managed, and according to government statistics, there are about 6,000 rooms available (figure 9.45). This figure seems somewhat excessive when the number of tourists annually is only 2,000, and probably explains why visitors report staying in multi-storey hotels but finding that the floor where they are staying is the only one which is being used.



9.45 A large tourist hotel at Mount Myohyang. Most of the rooms are usually empty.



9.46 Construction of the Ryugyong Hotel began in 1987, and is due for completion in 2012 to mark the 100th birthday of Kim Il Sung.

ToK BoX



Education and Indoctrination.

In this chapter, and in chapter 18, North Korea has been used to illustrate some important themes in Geography. Critics of the government in North Korea claim that the authorities use indoctrination to 'brain wash' its citizens, feeding lies and half-truths in a way that does not encourage questioning.

To some extent, what outsiders interpret as indoctrination and blind acceptance of authority is part of Korea's traditional educational ethic, based on Confucianism. Although originating in China, Confucius' thoughts have been very influential in Korea (and elsewhere in Asia), leading to a high level of respect for those in authority (and especially scholars) combined with a very positive attitude towards the importance of academic learning as a means of self-improvement. In Confucian societies, education is seen as being important not only for personal improvement, but to help the harmonious and progressive development of society as a whole.

In North Korea, this respect for authority figures has been elevated to new heights by the imposition of a personality cult around the country's founding President, the Great Leader Kim Il Sung,

and his son, the Dear Leader Kim Jong Il. It is this personality cult that leads critics of the regime to claim that widespread indoctrination occurs.

The IB aims to be a mind-broadening model of education that opens new possibilities for the students who complete it. By asking open-ended questions in subjects such as geography, the IB is probably the complete opposite of closed and rigid models of education, such as those operating during the Soviet era in the USSR or in Germany during the Nazi period.

It is interesting to consider the differences between 'education' (the process of receiving or giving systematic instruction) and 'indoctrination' (teaching a person or group to accept a set of beliefs uncritically).

Some possible differences between education and indoctrination might be:

- 'Education' has a positive connotation, 'indoctrination' is negatively loaded;
- 'Education' broadens the mind whereas 'indoctrination' narrows the mind;

- 'Education' is a dialogue, 'indoctrination' is a monologue;
- 'Education' transcends 'indoctrination';
- 'Education' lights fires whereas 'indoctrination' fills buckets

In mathematics classes, students are commonly taught "you must never divide by zero". When the author of this book studied mathematics in high school, he was taught that it was okay to divide by zero, and the answer would always be ∞ . Is the statement "you must never divide by zero" an example of education or indoctrination?

Actually, it is an example of an **axiom** — a statement or proposition that is regarded as being established, accepted, or self-evidently true in order to provide the foundation of other understandings.

In general, 'education' minimises the number of axioms, whereas in 'indoctrination', everything becomes an axiom.

Giving reasons and examples, do you think your study of IB geography is 'education' or 'indoctrination'?

The next ToK BoX is on page 438.

One question that many outsiders ask is whether it is appropriate a country such as North Korea. Some argue that as everything in North Korea is government-owned, all profits made from tourism would be used to support a regime that has been accused of human rights abuses and disregarding international laws.



9.47 Bison Waterfall, Mount Myohyang, North Korea.

On the other hand, the United Nations World Tourism Organisation endorses visits by outsiders as the best way to break the government's monopoly on information to North Koreans. Defectors who have escaped from North

Korea say the regime's grip will loosen only when North Koreans learn more about the outside world.

Furthermore, the historical experience in Eastern Europe during the 1980s suggests that keeping North Koreans isolated only cements the government's monopoly of information and control over the people. It is illegal for North Koreans to listen to foreign radio broadcasts, and all televisions used by local people are permanently tuned into the government's channel. Indeed, one of the main reasons that the North Korean government restricts tourism in the first place is to control the flow of information to the local population.

SWOT analysis of tourism in North Korea

One way to analyse the impact of tourism is to conduct a **SWOT analysis**. SWOT analyses examine the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats of a situation or a proposal. A SWOT analysis of tourism in North Korea undertaken by PATA (the Pacific Asia Travel Association) highlighted the following areas:

Strengths

- wide range of natural attractions, such as lush mountains and tranquil lakes (figure 9.47)



9.48 Korean food, of the type served to foreign visitors.

- acceptable 3-star hotels in Pyongyang and at key locations around the country
- good choice of local Korean cuisine (figure 9.48)
- ancient and well-preserved historical and cultural heritage
- warm people and hospitality
- impressive monuments and government buildings
- good network of highways (figure 9.49)
- clean and well-maintained tour coaches (figure 9.50)
- well-trained guides with excellent foreign language skills



9.49 The Reunification Highway is a wide expressway that runs south from Pyongyang to the border with South Korea. It is intended to link Pyongyang with Seoul after the two Koreas are reunited.



9.50 A typical tourist coach operated by the government's KITC (Korea International Travel Company).

- facilities capable of handling small conferences

Weaknesses

- limited air access
- stringent visa requirements
- public image of North Korea in international markets is driven by politics and hostile media presentations
- tourism infrastructure needs upgrading
- limited training for personnel dealing with foreigners
- does not enjoy 'Approved Destination Status' recognition from China
- limited choice on non-Korean food
- limited range of souvenirs, which when available are very expensive (figure 9.51)
- relatively expensive ground costs because of government monopoly pricing
- restrictions of foreign private investments
- harsh winter reduces the tourist season to nine months or less



9.51 A foreign languages bookstore in Pyongyang. The range of authors is quite limited, with most books being either by Kim Il Sung or Kim Jong Il, or about the two leaders and their philosophies. In addition to books, the bookstore sells flags, posters, lapel badges, video-tapes and stamps.

Opportunities

- a trip to North Korea is perceived as a novelty and has 'bragging rights'
- perception as the last bastion of socialism/communism attracts the curious traveller
- focused marketing and destination brand development
- attract foreign airlines to open scheduled or charter air services
- foreign tourism investments (subject to relaxation of private investment regulations and new regulations to protect foreign and private investments)
- huge potential markets in neighbouring countries such as China, Japan and South Korea
- potential niche products such as winter sports, ecotourism, VFR (visit friends and relatives), and small-scale regional conferences
- accelerating co-operation with South Korea and potential for joint destination marketing

Threats

- government bureaucracy
- lack of tourism infrastructure funds
- lack of destination marketing funds
- negative impact on markets of ongoing political developments
- possible instability if and when the country’s leadership changes
- fear of an invasion by US and South Korean forces

QUESTION BLOCK 9G

1. *Why do such small numbers of tourists travel to North Korea?*
2. *For you personally, what factors (a) would attract you to visit North Korea, and (b) would stop you going?*
3. *Classify the points in the SWOT analysis into (a) economic, (b) socio-political and (c) environmental factors.*
4. *Using the framework in this section, undertake a SWOT analysis of tourism in your home country, or a country of your choice. Identify the factors that are the same or similar as those for tourism in North Korea.*

Ecotourism

As a reaction to criticisms that tourism causes environmental degradation, there is a growing interest in **ecotourism**, which is based on environmentally sound principles and which seeks to encourage interaction between local people and tourists on an equal basis. Ecotourism encourages preservation of environmental quality and of traditional cultures, education of tourists and participation by local people (figure 9.52). Ecotourism operates under many labels, including adventure tourism, contact tourism, green tourism, low-impact tourism, sustainable tourism, and wilderness tourism.



9.52 *Ecotourism seeks to make minimal impact on the environment and maximise understanding of one’s surroundings. In China’s spectacular Tiger Leaping Gorge (shown here) local people are directly involved in tourism as they own and run all the guest lodges for trekkers in the gorge.*

The Talamanca Association for Ecotourism and Conservation in Costa Rica defines ecotourism in the following way:

“Ecotourism means more than bird books and binoculars... more than native art hanging on hotel walls or ethnic dishes on the restaurant menu. Ecotourism is not mass tourism behind a green mask. Ecotourism means a constant struggle to defend the earth and to protect and sustain traditional communities. Ecotourism is a co-operative relationship between the non-wealthy local community and those sincere, open-minded tourists who want to enjoy themselves in a Third World setting”.



9.53 *These two schoolgirls have volunteered to help build a medical clinic in China’s Guizhou province.*

Where governments and tour operators wish to develop ecotourism, management of tourism is usually undertaken through tools such as visitor management techniques, carrying capacity calculations, and consultation and participation with local people. However, ecotourism remains a minor part of the total picture of world-wide tourism, and many tourism operators feel that ecotourism reduces profits and the speed with which money can be made. Consequently, most of the growth in tourism in LEDCs tends to be mass-tourism.



9.54 *One of the attractions of Africa for tourists is its wildlife. These zebras are in Nech Sar National Park, Ethiopia.*

Ecotourism tends to appeal to ecologically and socially conscious individuals. It can take many forms, such as communing with nature or learning to understand the environment more deeply, volunteering, personal growth and learning new ways to live on the planet (figure 9.53). It typically involves travel to destinations where the primary attractions are the distinctive flora, fauna and cultural heritage (figure 9.54).

Ecotourism usually minimises the negative impacts of tourism on the environment and it tries to preserve and dignify the culture and influence of local people. An example of how this works in practice is the **ecotourism camps of Hartmann’s Valley**, situated in the arid Namib Desert in the far north-west of Namibia.

One example of such a campsite is Serra Cafema, which is located on the banks of the Kunene River that forms the border between Namibia and Angola. The canvas and thatched buildings are constructed from local materials where possible, and they are elevated above the floodplain, both to avoid floodwaters intruding into the cabins and to minimise the impact on the local ecosystem (figure 9.55). By using designs inspired by local indigenous architecture, air circulates naturally and thus neither heating nor air conditioning is needed despite the camp’s location in the heart of the Namib Desert.



9.55 These cabins at Serra Cafema have been built on stilts above the banks of the Kunene River (on the border of Angola and Namibia) to protect the riverbank ecology and avoid problems from floodwaters.

The camp is set among the Albida trees on the banks of the river, and it shares the area with the indigenous Himba people (see chapter 7). As the Himba are one of the last truly nomadic groups remaining in Africa, the opportunity to interact with the Himba and develop a deeper understanding of their culture is one of the attractions of Hartmann’s Valley. The camp managers employ a young Himba woman and share the profits of the camp with the local people. In return, the Himba, who are normally extremely shy and reclusive, have agreed to welcome visitors on the basis that this will help the tourists understand their indigenous culture more fully. As a



9.56 These Himba women are selling handicrafts to visitors in front of their home, representing their first tentative steps into the cash economy.

side-effect, the Himba also sell some of their handicrafts, thus dabbling in the cash economy in a small way (figure 9.56).

The main focus of the Hartmann’s Valley ecotourism camps, however, is gaining an understanding of the desert ecosystem. Unfortunately, ecotourism in remote locations is often a more expensive exercise than mass conventional tourism. The advertising for Serra Cafema describes the ecotourism experience of the camp in these words:

The variety of activities to explore the breathtaking landscape includes informative nature drives that tread lightly on the fragile habitats and boating on the Kunene River, where crocodiles and waterbirds seem out of place in this moonscape environment (figures 9.57 and 9.58). Walking in the remote mountain and river valleys are also a highlight, as is a visit to a Himba settlement, should the nomadic people be in the area. One of the highlights of Serra Cafema is the carefully guided quad bike excursions that tread lightly on the dunes, while allowing guests to experience a true desert (figure 9.59). The fairy circle phenomenon is best viewed in the Hartmann’s Valley (figure 9.60).



9.57 The Kunene River marks the boundary between Namibia and Angola.



9.58 *The natural ecology of the Kunene River.*

Ecotourism is therefore based on the belief that local wildlife and indigenous communities who live in the areas being visited both have inalienable rights to their heritage. In the case of indigenous peoples, this implies that they are brought into the mainstream of conservation and tourism, thus providing a sustainable future both for their communities and the area's flora and fauna (figure 9.61).

In the case of Hartmann's Valley camps, this philosophy is expressed by monitoring wildlife in the area, maintaining the local infrastructure, and setting up a permanent research camp on lichens (an important part of the Namib Desert ecosystem).



9.59 *Quad bikes allow visitors to the Hartmann's Valley to explore vast tracts of the desert environment with minimal environmental impact.*



9.61 *Fauna in the Hartmann's Valley.*

Ecotourism is often imperfect in its implementation for practical reasons, however. For example, while the Hartmann's Valley's isolation limits the number of visitors, it also means that motor vehicles are necessary to transport people to and from the camp, and to see wildlife (figure 9.62). While the drivers are extremely careful to stay on formed tracks, thus protecting the vegetation and the dunes, 4-wheel drive vehicles do produce exhaust fumes and create quite high noise levels.



9.60 *When animals are killed, the release of nutrients is too much for the hardy desert grasses to tolerate, as they have evolved to cope with a nutrient-poor environment.*

A key to sustainable ecotourism is operating in low-density environments and restricting the numbers of visitors. This ensures that human impact on fragile environments is minimised, that the integrity of the local area is not compromised, and that the act of tourism will lead to positive outcomes — environmentally, socially, culturally and financially.



9.62 *Four wheel drives are used in Hartmann's Valley to cover long distances.*

For this reason, perhaps a purer model of ecotourism is found in **Tiger Leaping Gorge**. The Gorge is situated in China's Yunnan province at the eastern end of the Hima-

laya Mountains, where the upper reaches of the Yangtze River have cut one of the world's deepest canyons. Tiger Leaping Gorge is 16 kilometres in length, and the height of the snow-capped mountains that line each side of the Gorge rise 3,900 metres from the waters of the river (see figure 7.2 in chapter 7).

Foreign as well as Chinese tourists come to Tiger Leaping Gorge to trek a narrow pathway that was originally developed as a track for horses to carry tea between Tibet and Yunnan (figure 9.63). The track gives spectacular



9.63 The upper path used by trekkers in Tiger Leaping



9.66 Some of the services offered by guest houses are described in this painted sign on the wall of a guest house in Tiger Leaping Gorge.



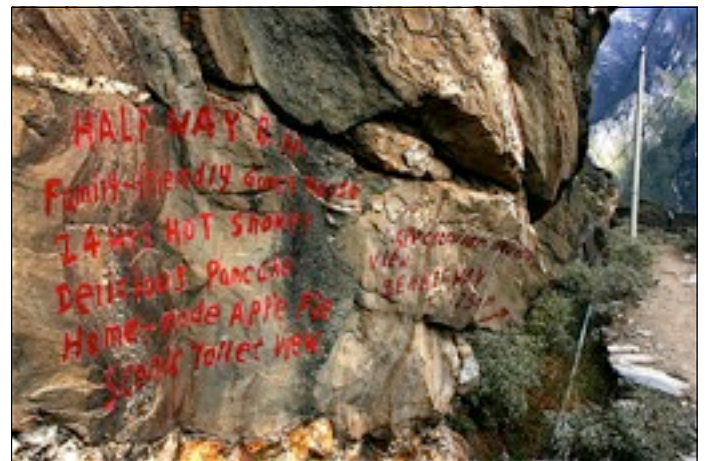
9.64 Donkeys are used by some trekkers, although most enjoy the walking.

views of the area's pristine landscape, but because of its steep and narrow nature, it must be traversed either by walking, or by a combination of walking and horse or donkey riding (figure 9.64).

Tiger Leaping Gorge is inhabited by an ethnic minority called the Naxi people. The Naxi typically live in two-storey wooden homes arranged around a central courtyard. When trekking first began in the area, many Naxi people welcomed visitors as guests into their homes for overnight stops. This has now developed into a sideline business for many Naxi farmers who have extended their homes by adding guest flats, charging visitors about US\$3 per night for accommodation, plus about US\$2 for Naxi-style cooked meals (figures 9.65 and 9.66).



9.65 Many of the guest houses operated by Naxi nationality people in Tiger Leaping Gorge also offer snacks and drinks to trekkers.



9.67 Advertising beside the pathway in Tiger Leaping Gorge.

Because tourism in Tiger Leaping Gorge causes minimal environmental impact and as its benefits accrue to local people through guest houses and horse rental, it is an excellent example of effective small scale ecotourism. This is not to say that there are no adverse impacts, however. Naxi people advertise their guesthouses by painting advertisements in red or yellow paint on the rocks beside the pathway, and many trekkers criticise this as a form of environmental vandalism (figure 9.67).

QUESTION BLOCK 9H

1. *What is ecotourism?*
2. *What characteristics of tourism in Hartmann’s Valley characterise it as ‘ecotourism’?*
3. *What characteristics of tourism in Tiger Leaping Gorge characterise it as ‘ecotourism’?*
4. *Which example of ecotourism do you prefer — Hartmann’s Valley or Tiger Leaping Gorge? Give reasons to explain your answer.*
5. *Outline the strategies that are used to manage and sustain ecotourism in Hartmann’s Valley and Tiger Leaping Gorge.*

Tourism as a Development Strategy

During the period of mass tourism (1950 to the present), the MEDCs’ share of world tourism has declined, while the share of the LEDCs has increased at an accelerating rate (table 9.5).

Large scale tourism of people from MEDCs to the LEDCs began in the 1970s. Before that time, travellers to LEDCs were small in number, and they tended to be specialist purpose travellers such as explorers, traders, colonisers, missionaries, scientists and administrators. In the 1970s, transport improvements and a desire by governments in LEDCs to raise income from tourism led to a substantial growth in numbers. By 2000, LEDCs such as China, Mexico and Thailand were all receiving more than 8

million international tourists per annum, and in China’s case, the figure was almost 30 million.

In a similar way that some LEDCs look towards industrialisation as a pathway to economic development, others look towards tourism. Many people in LEDCs regard it as a ‘smoke-less industry’. In other words, they see tourism as bringing substantial income in the same way as manufacturing, but without the environmental pollution which manufacturing industries produce. Many planners in LEDCs see tourism as a more reliable earner of income than minerals, cash crops and manufactured goods, all of which have experienced unstable prices from time to time. Furthermore, tourism was seen by the authorities in many LEDCs as an opportunity to define and raise money to preserve national culture, wildlife and unique natural features.

The size of tourism as a global industry doubles every 15 years, and it is the biggest growth industry, employer and source of revenue in the world. It is perhaps not surprising that LEDCs want to gain some of the revenue from this industry. Table 9.6 shows the importance of tourism for the 30 countries examined in several tables in chapters 1 and 2.

In general, countries with high numbers of international departures are the more affluent countries where residents can afford to travel. Countries with low numbers of departures but high numbers of arrivals tend to be LEDCs which have successfully developed a tourism industry. It should also be remembered that European countries tend to have higher tourism figures than elsewhere because of the short distances and ease of travel required to cross national borders within Europe.

The attraction of tourism for many LEDCs is that there is a constantly renewable supply of tourists available in the More Economically Developed Countries (MEDCs), and profitability can be high. It is often a quicker way to raise national income than exporting primary products or developing a manufacturing sector.

Table 9.5

Trends in International Tourist Arrivals by Region, 1950 - 2009

| Region | 1950 Share (%) | 1995 Share (%) | 2009 Share (%) | Difference 1950 to 2009 | % Change 1950 to 2009 |
|---------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| Americas | 29.6 | 19.7 | 15.9 | -13.7 | -46.3 |
| Europe | 66.6 | 59.4 | 52.3 | -14.3 | -21.5 |
| East Asia / Pacific | 0.7 | 14.8 | 19.5 | +18.8 | +2685.7 |
| Africa | 2.1 | 3.3 | 5.2 | +3.1 | +147.6 |
| Middle East | 0.8 | 2.0 | 6.0 | +5.2 | +590.0 |
| South Asia | 0.2 | 0.8 | 1.1 | +0.9 | +450.0 |

Source: World Tourism Organisation

Table 9.6

International Tourism (for countries listed in table 2.1, where data is available)

| | Thousands of Inbound Tourists, 1995 | Thousands of Inbound Tourists, 2007 | Thousands of Outbound Tourists, 1995 | Thousands of Outbound Tourists, 2007 | Inbound Tourism Expenditure US\$ mill. 2007 | Outbound Tourism Expenditure US\$ mill. 2007 | Inbound Tourism as a % of Exports 2007 | Outbound Tourism as a % of Imports 2007 |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|--|--|---|
| HIGH HUMAN DEVELOPMENT | | | | | | | | |
| Norway | 2,880 | 4,290 | 590 | 3,395 | 5,021 | 14,109 | 2.8 | 12.1 |
| Australia | 3,825 | 5,064 | 2,519 | 5,462 | 29,065 | 19,844 | 15.9 | 9.9 |
| Sweden | 2,310 | 3,434 | 10,127 | 12,681 | 13,706 | 15,696 | 5.9 | 7.8 |
| Japan | 3,345 | 8,347 | 15,298 | 17,295 | 12,422 | 37,261 | 1.5 | 5.1 |
| USA | 43,490 | 55,986 | 51,285 | 64,052 | 144,808 | 109,578 | 8.8 | 4.7 |
| United Kingdom | 21,719 | 30,870 | 41,345 | 69,450 | 47,109 | 88,478 | 6.5 | 10.7 |
| South Korea | 3,753 | 6,448 | 3,819 | 13,325 | 8,974 | 23,359 | 2.0 | 5.4 |
| United Arab Emirates | 2,315 | 7,126 | | | 4,972 | 8,827 | | |
| Mexico | 20,241 | 21,424 | 8,450 | 15,089 | 14,072 | 9,843 | 4.9 | 3.2 |
| Malaysia | 7,469 | 20,973 | 20,642 | 30,761 | 16,798 | 6,245 | 8.2 | 3.7 |
| MEDIUM HUMAN DEVELOPMENT | | | | | | | | |
| China | 20,034 | 54,720 | 4,520 | 40,954 | 41,126 | 33,264 | 3.1 | 3.2 |
| Iran | 489 | 2,735 | 1,000 | | 1,834 | 6,526 | | |
| Vietnam | 1,351 | 4,244 | | | 3,200 | | 7.1 | |
| Indonesia | 4,324 | 5,506 | 1,782 | 4,341 | 5,833 | 6,120 | 4.5 | 5.6 |
| Bolivia | 284 | 556 | 249 | 476 | 294 | 325 | 5.9 | 8.0 |
| India | 2,124 | 5,082 | 3,056 | 9,780 | 10,729 | 9,296 | 4.5 | 4.0 |
| Myanmar | 117 | 248 | | | 59 | 40 | 1.2 | 1.4 |
| Nepal | 363 | 527 | 100 | 469 | 234 | 402 | 16.3 | 11.0 |
| Papua New Guinea | 42 | 104 | 51 | | 4 | 56 | 0.1 | 2.1 |
| Kenya | 896 | 1,644 | | | 1,507 | 262 | 22.1 | 2.7 |
| LOW HUMAN DEVELOPMENT | | | | | | | | |
| Eritrea | 315 | 78 | | | 60 | | | |
| Nigeria | 656 | 1,111 | | | 340 | 3,494 | 0.5 | 7.6 |
| Tanzania | 285 | 692 | 157 | | 1,053 | 666 | 26.7 | 10.5 |
| Rwanda | | | | | 66 | 69 | 18.2 | 7.6 |
| Malawi | 192 | 714 | | | 48 | 84 | | |
| Zambia | 163 | 897 | | | 138 | 98 | 2.8 | 2.2 |
| Ethiopia | 103 | 303 | 120 | | 792 | 107 | 29.8 | 1.5 |
| Mali | 42 | 164 | | | 175 | 196 | 9.4 | 9.1 |
| Niger | 35 | 60 | 10 | | 39 | 42 | 6.5 | 3.9 |
| Sierra Leone | 38 | 32 | 6 | 71 | 22 | 17 | 6.6 | 3.5 |

Source: Derived from data supplied by the UNDP and the World Bank

9.68 Tourism spawns new occupations in LEDCs such as selling souvenirs or providing new experiences to tourists. In this view, enterprising local farmers have built rafts to transport tourists along the Yulong River near Yangshuo, China.



When tourism comes to LEDCs, many people who were involved in other industries, or were unemployed, establish themselves as part of the industry (figure 9.68). Although this is preferable to unemployment, it creates problems when they have diverted their attention away from food production and farming. Indeed, some scholars criticise tourism because it perpetuates the dependence of people in LEDCs on people from MEDCs, continuing a tradition of exploitation from colonial times. This may be especially so when the tourism infrastructure, such as hotels, airlines, bus companies and restaurants are owned by foreign interests which may siphon away the profits of the industry to other countries. Indeed, the World Bank estimates that 55% of the gross revenue from tourism in LEDCs leaks back to the MEDCs.

Another criticism of tourism in LEDCs is that it is an enclave industry that brings few benefits to local people. It is argued that tourism is largely confined to 'golden ghettos', or pockets of wealth near major tourist destinations, and the wealth does not become widely distributed. The situation can be aggravated if substantial investment is made in developing tourist facilities in these 'golden ghettos', diverting funds away from the needs of the general population (figure 9.69).

QUESTION BLOCK 9I

1. Why is tourism attractive to many LEDCs?
2. Describe the pattern shown in table 9.5, and suggest reasons for it.
3. Using table 9.6, list the countries that have (a) an excess of arrivals over departures, and (b) an excess of departures over arrivals in the latest year available. What generalisations can you draw from these lists?
4. Referring to table 9.6, what types of countries are most dependant on tourism in terms of (a) absolute income, and (b) percentage of foreign funds earned?
5. How can LEDCs ensure that they gain effectively from tourism?

Tourism is welcomed, or perhaps tolerated, in many countries because of the income in foreign exchange that it often brings into an economy (figure 9.70). Some countries with traditional cultures and developing economies rely on tourism as a major part of their economy as millions of tourists from wealthy nations visit each year. This is especially so for countries in the south Pacific such as Fiji and Tahiti, countries in the Caribbean such as Bermuda and Barbados, countries in Africa such as Kenya and Tunisia and countries in Asia such as Thailand and Malaysia.

There is widespread debate regarding the benefits and disadvantages of tourism. Tourism can generate substan-



9.69 Viña del Mar in Chile can be thought of as a 'golden ghetto' of tourism. It has very comfortable purpose-built tourist facilities (top photo) within a few kilometres of the poor housing in the port city of Valparaíso (bottom photo).

tial **economic benefits**, both in the destination country and in the tourists' home country. Indeed, one of the primary motivations for many LEDCs to promote tourism is the expected economic improvement. Tourism brings along both positive and negative consequences. According to the World Tourism Organisation, 924 million people travelled to another country in 2008, spending more US\$ 993 billion.



9.70 The importance of tourism to the economy of Yangshuo is illustrated by this sign, describing tourism in both English and Chinese.

Positive economic benefits flow from tourism in several ways. First, tourism generates **income** for the local economy, and it can encourage investment in other economic sectors. Some countries try to accelerate this growth by requiring visitors to bring in a certain amount of foreign currency for each day of their stay, which they do not allow to be taken out of the country at the end of the trip. In 2008, tourism was one of the top five export earners for 83% of the world's countries, and was the main source of foreign exchange earnings for 38% of countries.

Government revenues also flow from tourism, both as direct contributions that come from departure taxes and taxes on the tourism industry, and indirect contributions, which are taxes and duties on goods and services supplied to tourists. Tourism also **generates employment** for local people in areas such as hotels, restaurants, night clubs, taxis, and souvenir sales. In 2008, it was estimated that tourism supported about 9% of the world's workers.

Tourism can enable governments to make improvements to **infrastructure**, such as better water and sewerage systems, roads, electricity, telephone and public transport networks (figure 9.71). These improvements usually benefit local residents as well as the tourist industry.

It can be difficult to quantify the economic benefits of tourism in LEDCs because not all tourist expenditures are counted in national statistics. Money is earned from tourism through informal employment such as street vendors, informal guides, rickshaw drivers, and so on, but this is almost never counted by the authorities in LEDCs. Money earned in the informal sector is returned very



9.71 Bayan-Ulgii Airport in Mongolia brings tourists to visit the spectacular glacial scenery of the Altai Tavan Bogd National Park. It is unlikely that this airport would exist if it were not for the tourist industry. It should also be noted that very few local residents fly.

effectively to the local economy, however, and this has a big multiplier effect as it is spent over and over again.

There are also **negative economic impacts** of tourism. Many of the potential benefits of tourism are lost through **leakage**. Leakage refers to the losses to the local economy from taxes, profits and wages that are paid to people and organisations outside the area. It is estimated that in most all-inclusive package tours, about 80% of travellers' expenditures go to the airlines, hotels and other international companies, most of whom have their headquarters in the travellers' home country.



9.72 The American-owned Hilton Hotel dominates the skyline of Kuching and the scenery of the Sarawak River, adopting a fashion that owes nothing to the indigenous culture of East Malaysia where it is located.

Leakage can occur in two main ways. First, **import leakage** occurs when tourists demand standards of facilities, equipment, food, and other products that the host country cannot supply. In many LEDCs, food and drinks are often imported to meet tourists' expectations. The average import-related leakage for most LEDCs is between 40% and 50% of gross tourism earnings for small economies. Second, **export leakage** occurs when transnational corporations and foreign businesses send profits back to their

home countries. Foreign companies are often the only ones in LEDCs that have the necessary capital to invest in the construction of tourism infrastructure and facilities (figure 9.72).

Other economic losses arise from **infrastructure costs**. The development of tourism can consume a large proportion of the scarce revenues that governments in LEDCs possess. Expenditure on airports, roads and other infrastructure are sometimes at the expense of important development sectors such as education and health. Another economic problem is that tourism often **drives up the prices** for basic goods and services for the local population, whose incomes cannot sustain the rises that tourists can afford. Development for tourism can lead to rises in real estate demand, which increases building costs and land values for local residents. As well as making it more difficult for residents to meet their basic daily needs, rising land values can also disempower residents by giving wealthy outsiders effective control over land and property development.



9.73 *These women and men sell handicrafts to tourists in a floating market near Ywama on the Shan Plateau. Whenever they see a boat with foreigners approaching, they row across and surround the boat, eager to make sales.*



9.74 *At its best, tourism can build bridges of understanding between people of different cultures. Unfortunately, the scene shown here is more common where lack of language prevents meaningful exchanges and commercial transactions are reduced to a few angry words.*

Although income from tourism can be a benefit, this can become a problem when a country develops its tourism so much that it becomes **over-dependent on tourism**. Over-reliance on tourism brings significant risks to tourism-dependent economies. Economic recession in MEDCs, loss of confidence due to terrorism, and the impacts of natural disasters such as tropical cyclones can devastate an economy that is over-dependent on tourism. Over-dependence can also be a problem at a personal level, such as when local people develop a dependence on selling things to tourists and neglect education of children or the cultivation of food (figure 9.73).

As well as affecting the economy, tourism has an impact on the **culture** of LEDCs. As with economic effects, the impact of tourism on a country's culture has positive and negative aspects. On the **positive** side, tourism brings people from different cultures and backgrounds into contact with each other (figure 9.74). As such, it can **foster understanding** and provide authentic two-way cultural exchanges between hosts and guests. This can lead to greater tolerance, understanding and mutual respect.

Tourism often adds to the **vitality of communities**. Events and festivals are often rejuvenated and developed in response to tourist interest, helping to preserve local identity, and often leading to a renewal of indigenous cultures, cultural arts and crafts. The vitality of local communities can be strengthened further when the jobs created by tourism act as an incentive to reduce emigration away from rural areas to the cities.



9.75 *A young tourist joins in Uzbek dancing at the invitation of local people.*

Negative cultural impacts can occur when visiting tourists from wealthier nations create **hostility** among local people. Tourists may, out of ignorance or carelessness, fail to respect local customs and moral values. When they do, they can bring about irritation and stereotyping. Tourists may take a quick snapshot and then be gone, without realising that they have intruded into local peoples' lives in an insensitive way. On occasions, local people feel they must behave in a certain way, such as adapting local customs or wearing traditional dress to please tourists

rather than for special occasions, and this displeases other members of that community (figure 9.75).

On other occasions, the free spending attitudes and loud behaviour of tourists from wealthier backgrounds cause resentment among local people. Furthermore, some local people resent being placed in a role of servitude that they find demeaning. This has led some writers to label tourism to developing countries as '**cultural bastardisation**' and '**trinketisation**' where people in developing countries are assimilated into the materialistic attitudes of the developed world.



9.76 There can often be a stark contrast between the lifestyles of tourists and the population of the country where the tourists are visiting. The contrast can be seen in difference between this resort hotel in Penang, Malaysia (top photo) and the nearby houses of local residents (lower photo).

Tourism can place further pressures on local cultures by highlighting the stark **contrast in lifestyles** between tourists and the local population (figure 9.76). It is common to see high-rise, well maintained glass and concrete hotels towering over modest timber or iron housing of local people. Moreover, by engaging in behaviour that is offensive to local people, such as wearing minimal clothing for swimming, tourists who do not understand local sensitivities can unwittingly cause further offence.

Where cultures meet through tourism, a process known as **transculturation** often occurs. In transculturation, people

in a traditional culture are exposed to new and alien ideas by outsiders (figure 9.77). They selectively choose those parts of the new culture they wish to accept, and reject those that they do not. This leads to **adaptation** of the traditional culture to accommodate the preferences of tourists. Adaptation can cause resentment in two ways. First, defenders of the traditional culture within that society resent the dilution of the culture by outside influences. Second, those entrepreneurs who bring tourists to see the 'exotic' culture resent the convergence with 'mainstream western' culture that results. Such entrepreneurs are said to **commodify** the local culture, preserving it to make it a commodity with an economic value. They are said to prefer the **zooification** of traditional cultures, which means preserving them as a curiosity for others to see and observe.



9.77 Commercially-based transculturation – an Australian bar in the Thai beach resort of Phuket.

Where people such as tourists insensitively impose their own ideas, traditions and culture on others who are in a less powerful position, it is known as **cultural imperialism**. However, it is important to see this concept from different perspectives. It is often people in wealthy developed countries who tend to decide what is good (untouched traditional cultures) and what is bad (tribal people gambling, drinking or watching television). However, it is not appropriate to dictate that certain people should be prevented from modernising if they wish to do so, simply to be preserved as items of curiosity for outsiders. In this sense, it is often useful to distinguish between 'tourists' who engage in self-oriented mass travel, and 'travellers' who make an effort to preserve the environment and understand other cultures.



and lead to impacts such as soil erosion, increased pollution, loss of wildlife habitats, pressure on endangered species and greater vulnerability to forest fires. Tourism may place pressure on water resources, and it can force local populations to compete for the use of critical resources. On the other hand, tourism can place **positive pressures** to improve the environment, as tourists are unlikely to want to travel to heavily polluted or degraded environments (figure 9.79).

Where tourism is successful, it tends to follow three essential principles that make it sustainable in the long-term. First, the local population should remain prosperous and retain its cultural identity. Second, the landscape of the place being visited should remain attractive to tourists. Third, any impact on the ecology of the tourist destination should be minimal.



QUESTION BLOCK 9J

1. Draw up a table summarising the three main arguments (a) in favour and (b) against tourism to LEDCs.
2. Explain the terms 'transculturation', 'zooification' and 'cultural imperialism'.

9.78 In order to protect the fragile environment of the mountains and glaciers of the north-western border areas of western Mongolia (top photo), the Altai Tavan Bogd National Park was established to regulate the number of visitors, and their behaviour. Special permits are required to enter the national park, and access in 4-wheel drive vehicles must be organised through registered agencies (lower photo).

Leisure at the National/Regional Scale — Sport

National Sports Leagues

A **sports league** is an organisation that co-ordinates a group of individual clubs that play each other in a specific sport over a period of time for a championship. Some leagues may be as simple or as small as a group of amateur athletes who form teams among themselves and compete on weekends in their local area. At the other end of the spectrum are the international professional leagues that involve dozens of teams, thousands of players and millions of dollars.

A **league system** may form when a number of leagues are tied together in a hierarchical fashion. This might occur when the best teams playing in one league are promoted to a higher league, while the poorly performing teams in the higher league may drop to a lower league. League systems exist in a variety of major sports, and they are especially common in football (soccer) competitions in Europe and Latin America.

A **sports division** comprises a group of teams which compete against one another for a divisional title. Teams that get to the top of their division then compete for championships in the league. In this way, it can be seen that there is a **hierarchy** of teams.



9.79 An elevated pathway has been built to protect the fragile alpine ecosystem of Mount Kosciuszko (Australia) from damage by tourists.

Finally, there are positive and negative **environmental consequences** of tourism. Negative impacts arise when the level of visitor use is greater than the environment's ability to cope with this use within the acceptable limits of change. Uncontrolled conventional tourism poses potential threats to many natural areas around the world (figure 9.78). Tourism can place great pressures on certain areas

The hierarchy of teams often mirrors the location of the teams in a competition. There tend to be more teams at the lower rungs of the league, and these represent smaller, more local areas than the major teams, which often represent larger centres of population or places with a greater drawing area (geographical spread).

Traditionally, sporting teams tended to represent particular areas, and players were drawn from their local area to represent that place. As some sports have become more professional, the traditional relationship between the team's home area and the area from which it draws its players has broken down. In the same way, the supporters of teams in major sporting leagues are less and less likely to live in the area represented by the team they are supporting.

QUESTION BLOCK 9K

1. Explain what is meant by the 'hierarchy of a sports league'.
2. Examine one sporting league in the area where you live, and describe the relationship between the location of the teams and the residential areas of its main supporters.

Leisure at the Local Scale — Tourism

Tourism Management in Urban Areas — the case of St Petersburg, Russia

When looking at tourism in urban areas, we can distinguish between primary and secondary tourism resources.

Primary tourism resources are those factors or attractions which are the main reasons that tourists may want to visit a particular city. Primary tourism resources may be broadly categorised into groups such as scenic, cultural, historical, religious, ecological or climatic resources.

Secondary tourism resources are the facilities provided to support tourism in the city, such as accommodation, shopping, catering, entertainment, transport, and information services. These facilities are important for the success of urban tourism, but they are not the main attractors of visitors.

To understand the nature of these concepts, we will examine one of the world's great cities for tourism — St Petersburg, in north-west Russia. As a former capital city of the Russian empire, St Petersburg (Санкт-Петербург), which was known as Leningrad (Ленинград) between 1924 and 1991, attracts tourists who are interested in art, architecture, music, culture and history.

St Petersburg is located on a collection of flat delta islands and the surrounding banks of the mouth of the Neva River where it empties into the Gulf of Finland, which in

turn empties into the Baltic Sea. The oldest part of the city was established in 1703 when the Czar (king) of the time, Peter the Great, established the Peter and Paul Fortress on a small island in the Neva River (figure 9.80). The city expanded on the nearby islands and river banks, and by 1725 the population had already grown to 40,000 people.



9.80 The Peter and Paul Fortress in St Petersburg, Russia.

The Lonely Planet Guide to Russia describes the appeal of St Petersburg to tourists in these words:

“If much of Russia recalls its Eastern rather than Western roots, St Petersburg is where you’ll feel Russia’s European influences and aspirations. The city was founded under gruelling conditions by Peter the Great as his ‘window on the West’ at the only point where traditional Russian territory meets a seaway to northern Europe. Built with 18th and 19th century European pomp and orderliness, mainly by European architects, the result is a city that remains one of Europe’s most beautiful. Where Moscow intimidates, St Petersburg enchants”.

Because of its history, St Petersburg’s most important **primary tourism resources** are architectural features in the old historical centre of the city. This concentration is highlighted in figure 9.86, which shows a sketch map of the city prepared for English-speaking tourists. The location of the Peter and Paul Fortress can be seen clearly on this map, and the concentration of other historical buildings around this area is also evident.

The defensive walls of the Peter and Paul Fortress are still the oldest buildings in St Petersburg, and the island is thus an important primary tourism resource for the city (figure 9.81). Within the walls of the fortress, the Cathedral of Saints Peter and Paul, with its distinctive needle-like spire (figure 9.80) is a major attraction. Furthermore, during the summer months, the sandy and grassy surrounds of the fortress serve as an important sun bathing and swimming area (figure 9.82). In winter, when the angle of the sun’s rays is much lower, many people sun bake by leaning in a standing position against the sloping fortress walls facing the sun, even when the river beside them is frozen.



9.81 A close view of the walls of the Peter and Paul Fortress.



9.82 Local residents sun-bake beside the walls of the Peter and Paul Fortress during summer.

As with most popular primary tourism resources in almost every city in the world, the large number of tourists visiting the Peter and Paul Fortress cause management and environmental challenges. In many cities that have good international connections, large numbers of visitors are likely not to speak the local language, which encourages signage using symbols rather than words. In the case of the Peter and Paul Fortress, many signs such as the one shown in figure 9.83 have been erected in an effort to minimise damage and pollution in the area.



9.83 This sign attempts to manage the impact of tourism in the Peter and Paul Fortress.

Just across the Neva River from the Peter and Paul Fortress is perhaps St Petersburg’s best-known primary tourism resource, the green, white and gold buildings of the Hermitage Museum (figure 9.84). Claimed by many to be the world’s most famous art gallery, the Hermitage is located in five connected buildings that comprised the Czar’s former Winter Palace. Many people visit the Hermitage as much for its architecture as its works of art (figures 9.85 and 9.87). It was the storming of the Winter Palace by the Bolsheviki in 1917 that started the Russian Revolution, bringing communism to Russia for the subsequent 74 years.



9.84 The Hermitage Museum is in the former Winter palace that was used by the Czars (kings) of Russia before the 1917 Communist revolution.



9.85 The extravagant interior architecture of the Hermitage.

The scale of the hermitage is vast, consisting of 1,057 rooms and 117 staircases. Even so, there is only enough space to display about 10% of the total collection at any one time. In order to control numbers, and perhaps also to maximise profits, foreigners pay an entry price that is 15 times greater than the fee paid by Russians.

Another important primary tourism resource in central St Petersburg is St Isaac’s Cathedral (figure 9.88). The cathedral, which is built in an Italian rather than Russian style, dominates the skyline of central St Petersburg.

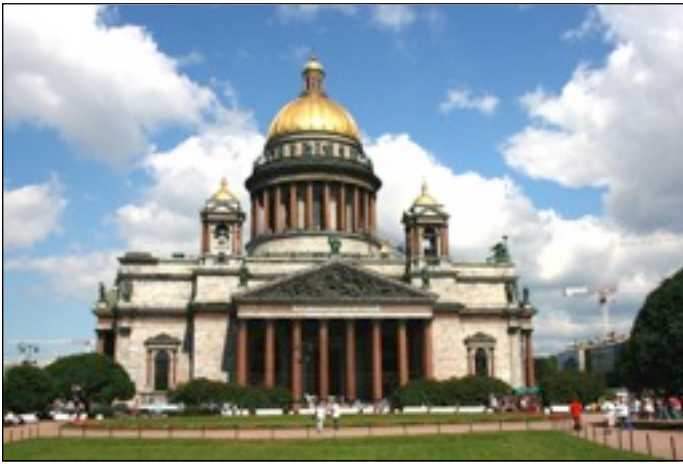


9.86 Tourist map of St Petersburg. (courtesy: Aeroflot Russian International Airlines)





9.87 One of the many galleries within the Hermitage.



9.88 St Isaac's Cathedral, St Petersburg.



9.89 The interior of the dome in St Isaac's Cathedral.



9.90 A view across St Petersburg from the dome of St Isaac's.

The attractions of the cathedral for visitors are both its elaborate architectural interior and the views from the external gallery that surrounds its golden dome, reached after a steep climb of over 250 stairs (figures 9.89 and 9.90). Between 1928 and 1990, St Isaac's Cathedral was simply a museum as the communist authorities banned religious services in the building. Today, the cathedral is once again a fully functioning centre of Christian worship.

Some of the attractions in central St Petersburg are of more recent historical interest. As seen in figure 9.86, St Petersburg's main street is the elegant Nevskiy (or Nevsky) Prospekt (*prospekt* — проспект — means 'grand avenue'). During World War II, St Petersburg was under siege from the German Army for 872 days from 9th September 1941 to 27th January 1944. During the 'Siege of Leningrad', as this event was known, the city was almost encircled by German forces, resulting in the deaths of almost 1.5 million local residents from starvation (in addition to about 350,000 deaths from military actions). The city survived only because the winters were usually severe and a large lake to the east of the city froze, enabling convoys of Soviet trucks to drive across the frozen lake and bring food through what became known as the 'Road of Life'.

While the siege was in force, Leningrad (St Petersburg) was under constant artillery fire from the German forces on the southern outskirts of the city, with the result that one side of Nevskiy Prospekt was sheltered while the other was exposed. The siege is remembered today with a simple memorial in Nevskiy Prospekt which consists of a renovated sign typical of many that lined Nevskiy Prospekt during the siege (figure 9.91). Still replenished every day with fresh flowers, the sign reads 'Citizens! At times of artillery bombardment, this side of the street is more dangerous'.



9.91 A sign in Nevsky Prospekt dating from the siege of Leningrad warning residents to take shelter during artillery bombardment.

Although most of St Petersburg's primary tourism resources are found in the old historic centre of the city, this is not always the case. One example of a major tourist site on the outskirts of St Petersburg is Peterhof (also

known as Petrodvorets), which is located 30 kilometres west of central St Petersburg on the shoreline of the Gulf of Finland (figure 9.92).

Sometimes referred to as 'Russia's Versailles', Peterhof was Peter the Great's palace in the early 1700s and is set in extensive landscaped gardens with grand pavilions, artificial lakes and lavish fountains. The palace complex was almost destroyed during December 1941 and January 1942 when Stalin heard that Hitler was planning to hold a grand victory celebration there. The current buildings were reconstructed by Soviet authorities after World War II using photos, drawing and anecdotes.



9.92 Peterhof, a palace on the outskirts of St Petersburg.



9.93 Mass graves at the Piskarevskoe Memorial Cemetery.

Another example of a primary tourist resource that is found in the outer suburbs because of the large amount of land it occupies is the Piskarevskoe Memorial Cemetery (figure 9.93). This cemetery accommodates the mass unmarked graves of almost half a million of those people who died during the Siege of Leningrad. The graves cover many hectares, and are simply slightly raised mounds of earth, marked simply by the year of death. The entrance to the cemetery has an exhibition of historical photographs that need no translations.

For the same reason that Peterhof and the Piskarevskoe Memorial Cemetery lie in the outer suburbs of St Petersburg (i.e. they require large areas of land), some of the

city's important **secondary tourism resources** are also found in the suburbs.

One example of this is St Petersburg's main airport, known as Pulkovo, which is situated 17 kilometres south of the city centre. There are two parts to the airport, Pulkovo-1 for domestic flights and Pulkovo-2 for international flights. Covering an area of 1,479 hectares, Pulkovo serves over six million passengers annually, making it Russia's fourth largest airport in terms of passenger capacity. By international standards, the airport is somewhat poorly equipped, lacking many of the facilities taken for granted in other countries, including air-bridges to connect the terminal with most aircraft (figure 9.94).



9.94 The domestic terminal at St Petersburg's Pulkovo Airport.

However, with the exception of some cheaper hotels that are situated on the city's outskirts to take advantage of cheaper land prices, most of St Petersburg's secondary tourism resources are found in the inner city areas where the primary tourism resources (and therefore most of the tourists) are situated. This applies especially to accommodation and transport services.



9.95 The huge Moscow Hotel in St Petersburg was built during the Soviet era.

Many of St Petersburg's hotels date from the Soviet era when large, institutional, characterless, concrete structures were the norm, usually featuring rude service and broken plumbing (figure 9.95). Being built during the

Soviet era, the location of these hotels bear no relationship to land values and are as likely to be located in central city locations and suburban areas.

Since the fall of communism, home stays and private flats have become available to tourists. Many of these flats are small in size but centrally located, making them very popular with travellers who want to avoid the expense and coldness of institutional hotels.



9.96 A station in the Metro underground railway.

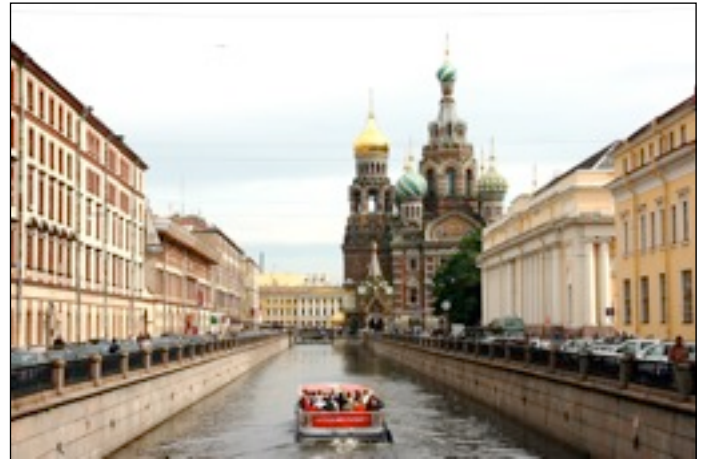
St Petersburg has a cheap, clean and reliable underground railway network, known as the Metro, which is used by tourists as well as the local population (figure 9.96). Trains usually come every three minutes or so, and the network of routes serves the entire metropolitan area from the centre to the periphery. Being underground, the Metro is not affected by the city's climatic extremes such as heavy rain, sleet or snow. The Metro is supported by bus, trolley-bus and tram routes. Although the buses, trolley-buses and trams are older and more crowded than the Metro, they are also very cheap to use and the total public transport system means that few tourists are forced to rely on the more expensive taxis or less reliable private cars.



9.97 A tourist boat on the Neva River in St Petersburg.

One type of transport that is commonly used by tourists rather than local people in St Petersburg is canal and river

boats (figure 9.97 and 9.98). Because St Petersburg is situated on a delta, rivers and canals criss-cross many parts of the historic old centre of the city, which is also where many of the tourist attractions are located. Therefore, during the summer months from May to September, when tourist numbers are high and the rivers are not frozen, excursion boats provide river and canal tours as well as transport between key points, such as the Hermitage to Peterhof.



9.98 A sightseeing boat on one of St Petersburg's canals.



9.99 Small privately owned stalls sell souvenirs near the entrance to the Peter and Paul Fortress.



9.100 This man has a small bear, and charges tourists to have their photo taken with it.

Wherever tourists are found in significant numbers, retail outlets will spring up to cater for their needs and wants. During the communist era, retail outlets for tourists were restricted to shops in hotels and a few government-operated souvenir shops. Since the fall of communism, there has been rapid growth in small private enterprise stalls for tourists (figure 9.99). These stalls usually sell refreshments, souvenir handicrafts such as matryoshka dolls and (ironically) Soviet-era memorabilia, and T-shirts. In recent years, informal retailing has sprung up, where entrepreneurs establish a mobile presence in parks or gardens frequented by tourists to get donations in return for performing animal acts (figure 9.100).

An important group of secondary tourism resources is places to eat, such as cafés and restaurants. As one might expect in a large city with four and a half million people, St Petersburg has a vast range of dining options for tourists, from cheap stand up cafeterias to very expensive restaurants. The distribution of these dining places closely follows the broad pattern of tourist distribution in St Petersburg, which means there is a concentration of services in the old historic city centre. As Russia has opened up to outside countries, more and more overseas influence has become apparent in the city's dining options — evidence of globalisation — and Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Indian and American offerings are now widespread (figure 9.101).



9.101 A McDonald's restaurant in St Petersburg, Russia.

QUESTION BLOCK 9L

1. Explain what is meant by the terms 'primary tourism resource' and 'secondary tourism resource'. Give five examples of each in St Petersburg.
2. Study figure 9.86. Note that Metro stations are marked by the red letter "M". Describe the distribution and location of (a) primary tourism resources, and (b) secondary tourism resources.
3. Using the information in this section, and any other information you can find about St Petersburg, suggest reasons for the pattern you described in question 2.

4. What strategies have been put into place in St Petersburg to manage tourist demands, minimise conflicts between local residents and visitors, and avoid environmental damage?

Tourism Management in Rural Areas

The issues confronting tourism in rural areas are quite different to those concerning urban tourism, such as in St Petersburg. In many rural areas, concerns have been expressed about the impact of tourism and other land uses on the wildlife population. This led to the development of the concept of **carrying capacity**, which was defined by the United Nations World Tourism Organisation in 1992 as "the maximum use of any site without causing negative effects on the resources, reducing visitor satisfaction, or exerting adverse impact upon the society, economy or culture of the area". It follows from this that **carrying capacity analysis** is the application of the concept of carrying capacity to a particular area.

Other definitions of carrying capacity have been a little more straightforward. In 1982, Mathieson and Wall defined carrying capacity as "the maximum number of people who can use a site without an unacceptable alteration in the physical environment and without an unacceptable decline in the quality of the experience gained by visitors". In 1997, Middleton and Hawkins Chamberlain defined it as "the level of human activity an area can accommodate without the area deteriorating, the resident community being adversely affected or the quality of visitors experience declining".

There are other definitions also, but the basic idea of the concept of carrying capacity is that there is a limit, or threshold, beyond which tourists cause damage or strain to the environment as well as to the quality of their own experience (figure 9.102). In other words, tourism (and most human activities) bring pressures upon the natural and cultural environment, and if a certain limit (the carrying capacity) is exceeded, these pressures threaten the conservation of the environment, quality of life and the sustainability of development.



9.102 This group of tourists seem to overwhelm the temples at Angkor, Cambodia.

To some extent, analysing the carrying capacity of an area requires an element of subjective judgement. If environmental or cultural damage is being analysed, a value judgement is needed to decide at which point the impact exceeds some acceptable standard. For example, in an area where hiking occurs, a certain number of walkers could lead to compaction of the soil. Although this represents a change to the natural environment, the decision on whether it also represents damage to the environment depends on the consequences of the soil compaction (if any), the fragility of the environment being analysed, the other land uses in the area, and in the end, value judgements by those undertaking the analysis.

Four types of carrying capacity have been identified that relate to tourism. **Economic carrying capacity** relates to how dependent the economy is upon tourism. **Psychological carrying capacity** refers to the level of satisfaction the tourist expresses for the destination. **Environmental carrying capacity** is concerned with how much impact tourism has on the physical environment. Finally, **social carrying capacity** focuses on the reaction of a local community to tourism. Each of these types of carrying capacity overlaps to some extent with the others, but it is still possible for one type of carrying capacity to be exceeded for a period of time before it starts to impact on the others.

In the 1960s and 1970s, researchers tried to use the concept of carrying capacity to calculate the number of tourists that certain areas could sustain without causing unacceptable social or environmental changes. Nowadays, most researchers realise that the issue is far too complex for such a simplistic quantitative approach. This is because it is now recognised that different types of tourists will display quite different types of behaviour — an individual backpacker does not have the same impact as a member of a football supporters’ tour group, for example — and this makes it very difficult to legislate maximum numbers of people allowed into an area (figure 9.103).

Andrew Holden, who is Professor in Environment and Tourism at the University of Bedfordshire, suggests that there are ten factors which influence the carrying capacities of tourism destinations:

- fragility of the landscape to development and change;
- existing level of tourism development and supporting infrastructure (such as sewage treatment facilities);
- the number of visitors;
- the type of tourist and their behaviour;
- the degree of emphasis placed on the environmental education of tourists and local people;
- economic divergence and dependency upon tourism;
- levels of unemployment and poverty;
- attitudes of local people to the environment and their willingness to exploit it for short-term gain;
- the existing level of exposure of cultures and communities to outside influences and other lifestyles; and
- the level of organisation of destination management.

Case study of Etosha National Park, Namibia

Applying the concept of carrying capacity can be a useful tool when developing strategies to manage tourism in rural areas. This will be illustrated with reference to one particular case study, Etosha National Park in Namibia.



9.103 This sign at the entrance of Mago National Park in southern Ethiopia outlines the regulations for visitors.



9.104 The white salt surface of Lake Etosha.

Etosha National Park is centred on a large salt pan in central Namibia — the word ‘*etosha*’ means ‘Great White Place’ (figure 9.104). The park is located about 400 kilo-

metres north of Namibia's capital city, Windhoek. The salt pan covers about 4,730 square kilometres, and at its widest point it is about 110 kilometres long by 60 kilometres wide. The pan is usually dry, although it does flood after heavy rains swell its two tributary rivers, the Ekuma and Oshigambo, which flow into Etosha from the north.

Until about two million years ago, the Etosha salt pan was a large inland sea. However, tectonic movements and climatic changes altered the course of the Kunene River that fed the sea, which began to flow westwards into the Atlantic Ocean. As a consequence, Etosha today is a depression made up of clay, silt and mineral salts that were left behind as the water evaporated.



9.105 Zebras drink water at a waterhole in Etosha National Park.

The park, which covers an area of 22,912 square kilometres, embraces the salt pan and its surrounding lands. When it was first established in 1907, it covered an area of about 80,000 square kilometres, but several reductions resulted in its present size. Because the salt pan represents a source of moisture, the park has an abundance of wildlife, with 114 mammal species, 340 bird species, 16 species of reptiles and amphibians and huge numbers of insects. The park contains many well developed water holes that enable visitors to see lions, zebras, giraffes, elephants, springboks, rhinoceros, warthogs, jackals, hyena, wildebeest and kudu, among many other types of animals, with relative ease (figures 9.105 and 9.106).



9.106 Elephants at a water hole in Etosha National Park.

Because of the area's dry climate, the way water is used is an important aspects of managing the park's carrying capacity. Some animals have adapted to the dry climate by developing the ability to obtain the moisture they need from their food. These animals are therefore mostly independent of surface water for their survival. However, most animals and birds in the park, and especially the larger species, must have access to drinking water every day. The feeding range of these species is limited to a distance within one day's walk of a water source.

The Etosha salt pan provides no drinkable water. It is only during a few months of the wettest years that the pan holds water, and even then, the water is twice as saline as sea water, and is thus not drinkable. Fortunately, there are perennial natural springs and water holes in the lands on the southern rim of the salt pan, and these explain the abundance of wildlife in the park (figure 9.107).



9.107 An oryx at a waterhole in Etosha National Park.

In order to minimise conflicts with the park's neighbours, who complained that lions were killing their livestock, fences were built to enclose Etosha National Park in 1973. This changed the feeding patterns of larger grazing animals such as elephants which had previously been free to migrate over huge distances, following the changing availability of water with the seasons. As a result, the animals in the park now depend exclusively on food and water available within the fenced perimeters. In order to maintain wildlife numbers, this forced the park management to build artificial watering points and to manage the water holes to prevent unnaturally large concentrations of animals which could cause overgrazing.

Etosha's wildlife is its major primary tourism resource, attracting over 850,000 visitors in 2006 (the most recent year for which statistics are available), an increase of 7% over the previous year. The revenue from tourism is very important to Namibia's development. Government statistics suggest that the income from tourism in the country's national parks exceeds US\$150 million per annum, while the annual cost of maintaining and running the parks is only US\$5 million.



9.108 One of the entry gates into Etosha National Park.

concentration of tourists (figure 9.109). All visitors must stay in the designated camps, which are within fenced compounds to keep out dangerous animals after dark. Camping or staying outside the compounds is strictly forbidden for safety reasons. Each of the campsites has a floodlit water hole for nocturnal wildlife viewing.

In order to minimise the impact of tourists on the park environment, strict enforcement of rules and regulations is carried out. The most common tourist offences are speeding, off-road driving, littering and getting out of vehicles at non-designated areas (figure 9.110). Driving speeds within the park are limited to 50 kilometres per hour to protect the wildlife, and park officials are purchasing speed measuring equipment to enforce this limit more strictly (figure 9.111).



9.109 Cabins at the Okaukuejo campsite in Etosha National Park.



9.111 A typical road in Etosha National Park.



9.110 This sign at Okondeka waterhole reminds visitors that they may not get out of their cars for reasons of safety.

Other regulations are enforced in Etosha to control human impact on the environment. For example, access to the western part of the park is restricted to registered Namibian tour operators; individual visitors are not allowed to enter this section of the park. Weapons such as firearms, air guns and catapults are prohibited. Furthermore, there is a total prohibition on removing wildlife or plants from the National Park area. Making noise of any kind at any water hole is forbidden between the hours of 9:30 pm and 6:00 am.

Visitor numbers are controlled in two major ways. First, an entry fee of \$4 per person plus \$3 per vehicle is charged at the entry gate to the park (figure 9.108). Second, and more significantly, the amount of accommodation (secondary tourism resource) within the park is controlled. There are three camps run by NWR (Namibia Wildlife Resorts), a government (Ministry of Environment and Tourism) agency that operates campsites throughout Namibia. The three campsites — Namutoni, Halali and Okaukuejo — are spaced at intervals of about 70 kilometres along the southern side of the salt pan to disperse the

QUESTION BLOCK 9M

1. Having considered the various definitions of 'carrying capacity' express a definition in your own words.
2. How might each of Holden's ten factors relate to the carrying capacity of Etosha National Park?
3. Classify the strategies to manage carrying capacity in Etosha National Park according to the four categories: (a) economic, (b) psychological, (c) environmental, and (d) social.

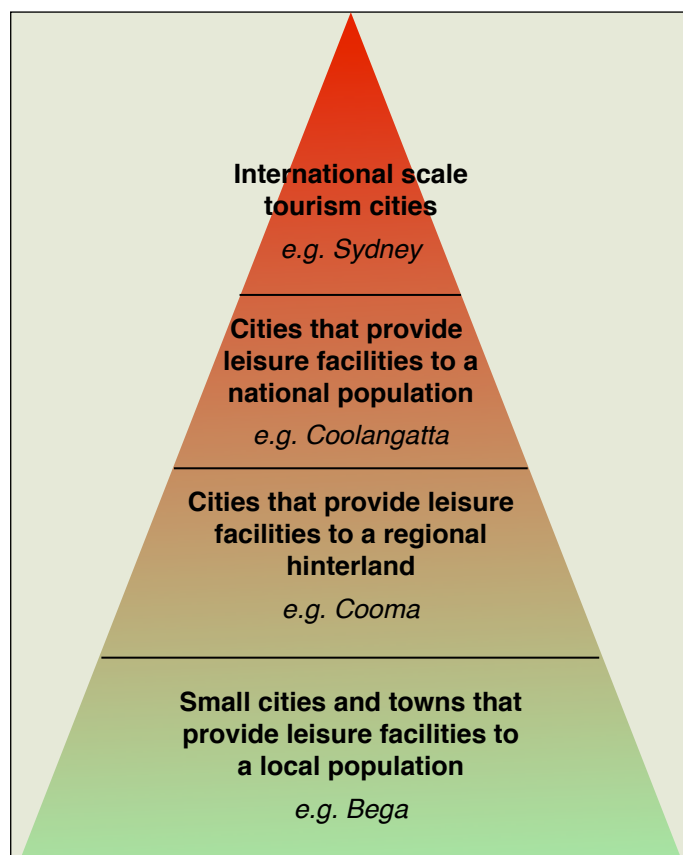
Leisure at the Local Scale — Sport and Recreation

The Leisure Hierarchy

A **hierarchy** is a system or organisation in which people or groups are ranked one above the other according to status or authority. Earlier in this chapter we looked at sports leagues, and noted that they usually operate as a hierarchy. Hierarchies exist at many levels in geography. Within cities, most people understand that there is a hierarchy of retail activities. In other words, we tend to find a small number of very large department stores (usually in the city centre), a larger number of medium sized stores (perhaps in the suburbs), and an even larger number of small shops selling convenience goods that are purchased at a high frequency.

Hierarchies also exist for urban settlements. Most countries (as well as states and regions within countries) have a large number of small settlements, and a smaller number of progressively larger settlements. In general, most people have to travel shorter distances to reach smaller shops and settlements than large ones because there are more small hops (and settlements) than large ones.

The same principle applies in the area of sports and recreation, where it is termed the **leisure hierarchy**. Figure 9.112 shows the leisure hierarchy as it might apply in one country, but the principle could be applied to most places.



9.112 The Leisure Hierarchy (using Australia as an example)

At the top level of the hierarchy are international cities with a strong attraction to tourists, such as New York, Paris, London, Hong Kong, Sydney and Singapore. These cities tend to have large international airports that have the potential to draw visitors from all parts of the world with famous attractions, galleries and museums. Furthermore, they have well developed leisure facilities that appeal to people of many disparate tastes (figure 9.113).



9.113 The signs in Hong Kong's Central district indicate a wide range of tourist-oriented services, including shops and restaurants.

At the second level, towns and cities whose leisure facilities are significant at the national scale are found. Some of these cities have particular attractions that draw visitors, such as beaches in the case of Penang (Malaysia) and Coolangatta (Australia), or perhaps significant cultural attractions, such as those found in Angkor (Cambodia) and Lalibela (Ethiopia, figure 9.114).



9.114 St George's church in Lalibela (Ethiopia) is a rock-hewn building, creating by excavation from the surrounding stone.

The third level of the hierarchy includes towns that lack the attraction of second level towns, but which nonetheless attract visitors from their surrounding region. These cities may have weaker transport connections that limit visitor numbers (such as Akureyri in Iceland and Lijiang in China, figure 9.115), or simply fewer features to attract visitors from far afield despite their relatively large size (such as Birmingham in the UK or Novosibirsk in Russia).



9.115 Shops in Lijiang, China.



9.117 Sports facilities at their most basic — a public ping-pong table in Konso Ethiopia.



9.116 A cinema in Whitehorse, Canada.

At the lowest level of the leisure hierarchy are towns that provide leisure facilities to the local population, but which attract few if any tourists from further afield. The types of leisure facilities in such towns will depend on cultural factors, but may include cinemas, parks and video games halls (figure 9.116). In LEDCs, the range of leisure facilities may be even more limited, and in many villages in developing countries, they may be limited to a foosball facility or a public ping-pong table (figure 9.117).

Intra-urban Spatial Patterns

As described above, leisure hierarchies exist between urban centres. The economic forces that operate to develop the leisure hierarchy also work within urban centres to develop distinctive spatial patterns of recreational and sports facilities.

In general, land towards the centre of towns and cities in MEDCs have higher values than land on the periphery. Therefore, recreational facilities that need large areas of land are more likely to be found near the outskirts of such towns, while leisure activities that need less space and return higher profits are usually concentrated towards the town centre where accessibility is greatest. Examples of leisure facilities commonly found in town centres include cinemas, restaurants and theatres, while typical outer urban leisure facilities include swimming pools, tennis courts, ovals, sports grounds and football fields (figure 9.118). Of course, exceptions occur to this pattern, usually for specific historical or political reasons.

Another common intra-urban spatial pattern is that the quality of leisure facilities may decline with distance from the city centre. We can describe this as being an **inverse**



9.118 Provision of leisure facilities in a typical town in a More Economically Developed Country.



9.119 Cricket facilities in central Mumbai (India).



9.120 Cricket facilities in inner Mumbai (India).



9.121 Cricket facilities in suburban Mumbai (India).



9.122 The area of bare earth in the right foreground shows a field used for playing cricket in a shanty area of outer suburban Mumbai.

relationship between distance and quality, meaning that as one factor (distance) increases, the other factor (quality of the leisure facility) declines. This effect is known as **distance-decay**, and an example can be seen in the four photos of cricket facilities in Mumbai (India) in figures 9.119 to 9.122.

Urban Regeneration

In recent years, sport and tourism have been recognised as significant factors in regenerating rundown sections of urban areas. The role of sport in urban regeneration was first highlighted on a major scale when several cities such as Rome, Munich, Seoul and Barcelona hosted the Olympic Games and used the event as a catalyst to revitalise run-down parts of the city. This had led national and even local governments, especially in Europe, to recognise the potential of sport as a way to initiate urban regeneration.

The use of sport to boost urban regeneration has been especially strong in the United Kingdom. Many local government authorities in the UK offer funding for projects that will boost tourism (especially business tourism, conferences and heritage tourism), and when combined with other government grants that promote development projects in economically depressed areas, the result can be sports or leisure-driven urban regeneration.

One example of such a project was the Millennium Stadium in Cardiff (figure 9.123). The Stadium opened in June 1999 as the new home of the Wales national rugby union team and the Wales national football (soccer) team. With a seating capacity of 74,500 people, it is the largest stadium in the world with a fully retractable roof.



9.123 The Millennium Stadium in Cardiff (Wales, UK).

Despite its location on very valuable land near the centre of Cardiff, it was decided to build the Millennium Stadium on the same site as an older stadium, known as Cardiff Arms Park. Although Cardiff Arms Park was a relatively new structure, having been renovated most recently in 1982, its seating capacity of 53,000 was considered too small and its facilities were regarded as

inadequate. The construction resulted in the demolition of several adjacent buildings, including a swimming pool, a telephone exchange and several office buildings. The result was a much more open space with access to the river and more accessibility to local residents.

When urban renewal occurs through sport and leisure activities, or indeed any economic trigger, there is a **multiplier effect** through the local economy. This means that as each dollar spent on urban renewal moves from person to person through the local economy, the actual benefits of the inflow of cash becomes multiplied several times. Thus, a leisure project that generates many new jobs (such as a new hotel) will have a greater multiplier effect than a more capital-intensive leisure development, such as a sports ground (once the initial construction phase has been completed). On the other hand, if the new developments are mainly in the hands of foreign operators, there will be a considerable leakage of profits to the home country, therefore reducing the beneficial effects of the multiplier effect in the location the new leisure facility.

Conflicts sometimes arise between different interest groups when new leisure-oriented urban developments are proposed. This is especially likely when demolition of people's homes is threatened. Residents are likely to claim that money would be better spent on improving housing quality or local people's welfare than on leisure facilities that are designed to attract outsiders and change the character of the area. Developers are likely to claim that land values will be enhanced by the new development and that it will boost the local economy by creating new jobs and supporting services. Of course, rising land values are unlikely to please many local residents who may be forced to move as they can no longer afford rents in the area. Furthermore, rising land values usually mean that the character of the urban area changes as more upwardly mobile professional people are attracted to the refurbished housing and new developments that become viable with rising land values.

For these reasons, tourist and leisure developments are often divisive and emotional as claims and counter-claims are argued, frequently through the media if any high-profile or well-known companies or individuals are involved. The response of some governments is to require that new leisure developments include provisions for enhancing the quality of life or job opportunities of local residents.

QUESTION BLOCK 9N

1. Using the information in this section and figure 9.112, define the term 'leisure hierarchy' and give examples of each level from two countries, one of which is your home country.
2. In your own words, describe the pattern shown in figure 9.118.

3. Discuss the accuracy of the pattern shown in figure 9.118 with respect to the town or city where you live.
4. Using specific examples, including some from your own personal knowledge and research, discuss the role of sport and recreation in regeneration strategies of urban areas.

Sustainable Tourism

Sustainable Management of Tourism

The former President of the Royal Geographical Society, Sir Crispin Tickell, made the following comment about sustainable tourism:

"Is sustainable tourism' a contradiction in terms?"

Some people certainly think so. Sustainability carries the idea of self-regulating societies in which economic and social change are broadly accommodated. But tourism means intrusion, disruption and damage, no matter its scale.

Yet tourism can be good too. It is now the world's largest industry, generating wealth and employment, opening the minds of both visitors and visited to different ways of life, and promoting that adjustment to change known as globalisation. The right to travel has become an icon of personal liberty, but rights carry obligations, and if tourism isn't to be like the Indian god Kali, both creator and destroyer, we need a balance."

Tourism is **sustainable** if it can be conducted in its present form in perpetuity. For this to happen, what is used must be matched to what can be renewed or re-placed. Sustainability has four facets – environmental sustainability, social sustainability, cultural sustainability and economic sustainability. As tourism extends towards increasingly exotic locations, the concept of sustainability becomes all the more important (figures 9.124 and 9.125).

Tourism to **Antarctica** is a new industry, and it is still very small in scale. In 1983, about 2,000 tourists visited Antarctica. This figure had risen to 6,700 in 1993, and 14,700 by



9.124 This sign in Lijiang (China) encourages tourists to behave in a sustainable way.



9.125 This bilingual sign at a hotel in Costa Rica lists the measures being taken to ensure tourism is sustainable.

2000. Tourists who venture to Antarctica are usually in search of a wilderness experience, hoping to go somewhere that is ‘off the beaten track’, and interested in an ‘environmental’ rather than a ‘restful’ experience (figure 9.126). There are health risks – hypothermia, sun-burn, dehydration, frostbite and snow blindness. Tourism is only possible in summer. In fact, tourism is prohibited in winter because pack ice extends for 1,000 kilometres around the continent, making access by ship impossible. In any case, Antarctica is dark for 24 hours per day during winter, and its temperatures can fall as low as -80°C to -90°C , so there is limited appeal to tourists anyway. The high cost of Antarctic tourism, about \$US5,000 for 14 days, limits the numbers of tourists to the area also.

The main human activity carried out in Antarctica is scientific research, and tourism has to conform to the needs of the researchers. Antarctica’s value for research will be lowered if it becomes polluted or significantly disturbed.

In a cold, fragile environment such as Antarctica, almost every human activity has some impact on the environment. The activities that take place in Antarctica tend to have a significant local impact, but of greater concern are the activities taking place outside Antarctica that have significant, widespread and long-lasting impacts. A well-



9.126 Travellers who seek remote places in extreme climates often have a greater affinity with the environment than tourists who head to resorts and more commercially oriented destinations.

known example of this is the annual ‘ozone hole’ above Antarctica. This is caused by the release of human-manufactured chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), mostly from the industrialised northern hemisphere.

The fragility of the Antarctic environment was recognised in 1991 when an international Protocol on Environmental Protection to the Antarctic Treaty was signed.

The protocol aims to protect the Antarctic environment, and it makes the following points:

- Antarctica is designated as a ‘natural reserve devoted to peace and science’;
- Mineral activities are prohibited for at least 50 years, except for scientific minerals research; and
- All activities are to be conducted in a manner that limits adverse environmental impacts.

Tourists who go to Antarctica are given strict instructions on how to preserve the fragile environment. Typical advice would include the following:

- Do not dispose of litter or garbage on land. Open burning is prohibited;
- Do not disturb or pollute lakes or streams. Any materials discarded at sea must be disposed of properly;
- Do not paint or engrave names or graffiti on rocks or buildings;
- Do not collect or take away biological or geological specimens or human artefacts as a souvenir, including rocks, bones, eggs, fossils, and parts of buildings;
- Do not deface or vandalise buildings, whether occupied or unoccupied, especially emergency refuges.

QUESTION BLOCK 9O

1. Why do some people regard ecotourism as important?
2. What is meant by the term ‘sustainable tourism’?
3. Explain how tourism to increasingly exotic locations, such as Antarctica, can cause conflicts. How can these conflicts be managed?